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AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF AVAILABLE MATERIALS FOR
TEACHING THE NEW GRAMMAR IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by /

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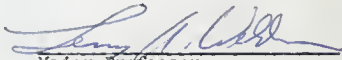

Major Professor

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INTRODUCTION

After five years of study, discussion, experimentation, and synthesis, the Commission on English sponsored by the College Entrance Examination Board published its report in 1965. It presents what the Commission believes to be a consensus among teachers of English on the essential characteristics of the subject. In the introduction of this report, the Commission limits the scope of the English program to the study of language, literature, and composition, written and oral.

In the chapter on language, the report states that "Schools have long been committed to improving their pupils' command of reading and writing, and the public will not permit them to relinquish the obligation."¹

This Commission expresses the writer's feelings that "language study is the most difficult part of the English curriculum to treat, mainly because attitudes toward it are largely determined by a totally prescriptive outlook on English usage and by a subscription to a Latin-oriented grammar. On scholarly grounds such views are not adequate. Unfortunately, many curriculum planners and administrators, the general public, and not a few teachers are only partially aware of the extent to which the traditional approach to language has been challenged and modified in the past few decades."²

¹Freedom and Discipline in English (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1965), p. 1A.

²Ibid, p. 1A.

The Commission's report chronologically traces the attack on traditional grammar by declaring a "revolution in language study began shortly after World War I with empirical demonstrations that traditional grammar, as conventionally taught, had relatively little effect on writing and was of negligible value in improving oral usage."³ The report cites the monographs of Sterling A. Leonard on the history of prescriptive attitudes toward English usage and on present-day usage which raised doubts concerning standards of correctness. Leonard's ally was Charles C. Fries, who published The Teaching of the English Language in 1927. The report states that "The works of Fries and Leonard traced the revolution of the traditional rules, showing how those rules had developed in response to a specific set of intellectual and social conditions in eighteenth-century England. They also liberally documented the uncomfortable fact that the rules had never been an accurate reflection of usage, even that of the best writers."⁴

Continuing, the report indicates that "The publication of Leonard Bloomfield's Language in 1933 stimulated a more intense study of English, modeled to a degree upon the methods and techniques of behavioristic psychology, and emphasizing initially, at least, the analysis of the spoken language. This came to be designated as the structuralist approach."⁵

As Leonard, Fries and Bloomfield were adding empirical fuel to the revolution, the lexicographers and the dialect geographers had been

³Ibid, p. 20.

⁴Ibid, p. 20.

⁵Ibid, p. 21.

refining their techniques for collecting valid samples of actual usage.

The results of this revolution have produced three additional varieties of English grammar. Historical grammar concerns itself with the history of English and its relations to other languages. The work of the historical grammarians was brought to a climax by Otto Jespersen's Growth and Structure of the English Language.

Another grammar, often labeled "structural linguistics," or "descriptive linguistics," derives from the twentieth-century work of Leonard Bloomfield and various others such as Charles C. Fries, Bernard Bloch, George Trager, and Henry Lee Smith. Their assumption is that study of the spoken form of the language is especially important, since written language is based upon that spoken. These men also believe it desirable to separate form from meaning in describing language, rather than to prescribe or to label "right" or "wrong."

The third and most recent variety of grammar to come out of this revolution is called "generative" or "transformational" grammar. The leading pioneers of this grammar are Noam Chomsky and Zellig Harris, with Robert Lees, Robert Stockwell, Owen Thomas, and Paul Roberts among those making notable contributions to theory and popularization. Grammarians in this area build upon the work of the structuralists by showing how "transformations" are made from "kernel sentences" to variations of those kernels. Transformational grammar presents, with attempted mathematical precision, the exact rules that govern the construction of sentences.

This fourfold division used here--traditional, historical, structural, and transformational--constitutes something of an over-

simplification. The so-called traditionalism of the old-style review grammar or workbook bears no resemblance to the fine work of Henry Sweet or Otto Jespersen, who are somewhat loosely and incorrectly classified as traditionalists, nor is the structuralism of Henry Lee Smith and George L. Trager at all like that of Charles C. Fries. Even transformational grammar, still in its infancy, is changing rapidly.

What is the secondary English teacher to do, faced with such wealth, or diversity, or turmoil?

Professor James Sledd, though basically a structural grammarian, believes that "Grains of truth are present in all four of the chief varieties of grammar, and that teachers should be informed about all of them."⁶ The Commission on English report compounds this idea when it states that "Teachers of English should know enough about the several descriptions of English so that they can draw freely upon each at points of relevance in the classroom."⁷

JUSTIFICATION

Some high school English teachers have taken the plunge and are willing to admit that a scientific approach to language analysis has produced a grammar more reliable than the one they learned in school. Dr. Charles Alva surveyed the use of structural grammar in California high schools and reported that "It is being used to varying degrees by almost four percent of the approximately four thousand teachers of

⁶James Sledd, "Snafu, Fubar, or Brave New World?: National Trends in the Teaching of Grammar," High School Journal, XLIX (January, 1966), p. 163.

⁷Freedom and Discipline in English, loc. cit., p. 37.

English in the public high schools of California."⁸ A partial survey by the writer of post-1950 articles in the English Journal indicates that a small percentage of English teachers across the United States are using new grammar with varying degrees of success. A report published by the Center of Applied Linguistics in May 1966, revealed that "ninety-eight colleges and/or universities in the United States offer resources for linguistics and teacher training in English as a foreign language."⁹ Assuming these facts establish the respectability of linguistics, there are still some questions to answer. Would the substitution of form-classes for parts of speech produce better writing and speaking? How much and what part of the structural linguist's, or the historical linguist's, or the transformational linguist's work should be included in modern English programs? These are questions which the present generation of English teacher must answer.

And these questions must be answered by English teachers or curriculum planners, not linguists. The linguist observes and records language usage, develops hypotheses which may explain his data, and then tests these hypotheses against further observations. When his generalizations have been proved beyond reasonable doubt, he publishes his findings and his work is completed, pending receipt of further data.

The next step belongs to the English teacher or curriculum planner.

⁸Charles Alva, "Structural Grammar in California High Schools," English Journal, XLIX (December, 1960), P. 607.

⁹University Resources in the United States for Linguistics and Teacher Training in English as a Foreign Language (Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1966), p. iii

They must decide how much of this description of the language students can learn, what is the best sequence in which to present the material to them, and what parts of it will aid most in achieving his primary goal: the development of better communication skills in his students. H.A. Gleason, a noted linguist, remarks in an article in the Harvard Education Review that ... "The choice to the English teacher is presented not so much in the form of an assortment of fully worked out comprehensive grammars, as a copious mass of materials from which the elements can be selected."¹⁰ Then, Gleason suggests, "It is up to the people primarily concerned with the curriculum to build an integrated system out of the materials available."¹¹ Again, assuming the respectability of linguistics, the writer feels that the basic problem facing English teachers and curriculum planners is to decide whether a substitution of the new grammar would produce better writing and speaking, and, if they decide affirmatively, to build an integrated system of linguistically oriented courses into the English curriculum.

Although this report will not help the English teacher or the curriculum planner to build an English curriculum, the writer feels that a report in the form of an annotated bibliography of available materials for the new grammar approach to teaching English in secondary schools could be a valuable tool to help the English teacher or curriculum planner decide whether a substitution of the new grammar would produce better writing and speaking.

¹⁰H.A. Gleason, "What Grammar?" Harvard Education Review, XXXIV (Summer, 1964), p. 464.

¹¹Ibid, p. 464.

LIMITATIONS

The writer was restricted from presenting a complete annotated bibliography of the literature concerned with the new grammar approach to teaching English for several reasons. The main reason was the availability of resource materials. Only the libraries of Kansas State University, Marymount College, and Kansas Wesleyan University were used. Because the facilities of these libraries were limited, so the scope of the bibliography in this report is limited.

Because of this restriction, the writer found that it was impossible to follow any systematic plan to quantitatively organize the bibliography. The alternative was to follow a qualitative plan which involved judgments on the part of the writer in the selection of materials. Judgments are linked to biases. Although the writer attempted to be as objective as possible in the compilation of the bibliography, no doubt biases could be uncovered.

Bearing these two restrictions in mind, the writer found it necessary to place arbitrary limitations on the bibliography in this report. The analysis of those materials available to the writer was divided into three sections. Section one contains available articles, essays, and discussions of the new grammar which were indexed in the Education Index. The writer felt justified in using Education Index only because the title of this paper indicates that these materials will be used in education. In making an inventory of relevant articles in Education Index, the writer found that a majority of these articles had been written after 1955. Because this factor was not statistically considered, the writer arbitrarily chose 1955. Therefore all articles,

essays, and discussions which appear in section one are post-1955 in time origin.

Section two of the bibliography contains books of theory and application of the new grammar. Dr. Owen Thomas of the Indiana University Department of English classifies the new grammars as "structural and generative."¹² For the purposes of this report, new grammar will be structural grammar and/or generative grammar. "The most notable structural grammarians," according to Dr. Thomas, "include Bloomfield, Fries, Gleason, Bloch, Trager, Smith, Hill, Sledd, Hughes, and Whitehall."¹³ "Proponents of generative grammar are Chomsky, Harris, Lees, Stockwell, Thomas, and Roberts."¹⁴

Because the writer was restricted to the use of the Kansas State University library, the Marymount College library, and the Kansas Wesleyan University library and because the facilities of these respective libraries were limited, the writer found it necessary to limit the scope of section two of the bibliography in this report. Because of this restriction, the writer arbitrarily selected works by Bloch, Burton, Fries, Francis, Marckwardt, Sledd, Smith, Trager, and Whitehall as being representative of the structural grammarians and grammar. The Burton work is an anthology. Francis and Marckwardt were not included in Dr. Thomas' group of "notable structural grammarians"; however the writer included a work of Francis because of its completeness of descriptions of the English language and a work of Marckwardt because it included some history of English.

¹²Owen Thomas, "Grammatici Certant," English Journal, LXIII (May, 1963), p. 322.

¹³Ibid, p. 322.

¹⁴Ibid, p. 322.

In section two the writer also arbitrarily selected works of Chomsky and Roberts as being representative of the generative grammarians and grammar.

Section three of the bibliography contains commercially published English textbooks for the secondary schools which treat new grammar in whole or in part. The writer arbitrarily selected post-1965 English textbooks which were published in a series for secondary schools. The writer selected the eleventh grade textbook of each of the publishers' series because this was the only grade-level text made available to the writer by the publishers.

ANALYSIS-SECTION I

Alva, Charles. "Structural Grammar in California High Schools," English Journal, XLIX (December, 1960), 606-11.

How many teachers are teaching the new structural grammar? What do they think of its possibilities? Though Dr. Alva's survey, which asked these questions, involves only California, the findings are of general interest.

Initially, Dr. Alva comments on the major criticism of structural grammar: (A) There seems to be a kind of smile-when-you-say-that agreement between traditionalists and structuralists that (1) structural grammar can be a complex study for student and teacher, (2) that the terminology of such linguists as Fries, Roberts, and Whitehall is not uniform (but neither is that of writers of traditional grammars); and (3) that there is a variance among the systems of structural analysis (but linguists are generally agreed as to purpose and procedures in describing the American-English language).

(B) On the basis of scanty research, the author is led to the conclusion that little evidence supports charges that structural grammar is too difficult to be understood; most studies indicate student comprehension of linguistic principles and ability to apply them in an analysis of language.

Commenting on the extent to which structural grammar is being used, the author states that it is being used to varying degrees by almost four percent of the approximately 4,000 teachers of English in the public high schools of California. Those 130 teacher-users are in 88 different high schools of all sizes with most (67) of those schools containing but one user. Those teacher-users instruct in 32 of California's 58 counties and are most numerous in the San Francisco and Los Angeles areas, the most populous sections in the state. The teaching experience of respondents ranged from one to thirty-nine years. The group included a representative number of English majors and minors both male and female.

Concerning the education background of the respondents, the author reports that three-fourths of them had either one or two college courses in linguistic science or in structural grammar. Few indicated training solely by means of institutes or in-service training programs.

Some of the other findings of the survey: that structural grammar is taught on all secondary levels but especially in ninth and tenth, that the majority of respondents listed traditional grammar texts in use, that the most frequently named structural texts were Paul Roberts' Patterns of English (1956) and Charles Fries' The Structure of English (1952).

In the judgments of teachers using structural grammar: most (two-thirds) indicated that the use of structural grammar improved class morale more than did that of traditional grammar. About three-fifths felt that structural grammar is suitable for "all" students.

Anderson, Wallace L. "Structural Linguistics: Some Implications and Applications," English Journal, XLVI (October, 1957), 410-18.

The writer indicates that among the many developments in the teaching of English in the past thirty years or so, one stands out as particularly noticeable and singularly important: the movement toward a more realistic attitude toward our language and a more accurate description of it. The author feels that through the work of scientific descriptive linguists--pioneers like Sapir, Bloomfield, Whorf, Bloch, Trager, Smith, Fries, Pike, Whitehall and others--we now have for the first time a much more accurate and meaningful description of the English language.

According to the author, a few examples will suffice to demonstrate the superiority of a structural approach over the traditional approach. Compare the traditional definition of a noun as the name of a person, place, or thing with the structural description of a noun as a word (1) that can be inflected to form a plural, usually in /s/, /z/, or /iz/ (cats, dogs, houses), (2) that can be inflected to make a genitive case, (3) that may have a noun marker (determiner), usually an article or the genitive case form of a pronoun, (4) that occupies characteristic positions as subject, complement, or modifier, (5) that as subject is tied to verbs by certain specific formal signals. All of these things are structural characteristics that can be pointed to. It is a much more precise and accurate definition of a noun.

From definitions the structural approach moves to basic sentence patterns in English. Students learn the patterns and then substitute single words and word groups in the various slots. Students practice with expanded patterns, which involve our modification system. The author feels that drill in sentence patterns can be extremely useful in improving students' writing. The purpose in stressing sentence patterns is to make the students aware of structural signal resources, and then by imitation and drill to use them habitually in their writing.

In addition to word classes and word order, the author indicates that structural grammar includes the recognition of intonation patterns, composed of what the structural linguists call suprasegmental phonemes--pitch, stress, and juncture. These signals are used to indicate various mental and emotional attitudes, such as surprise, anger, delight, and irony; to differentiate certain parts of speech; to indicate whether an utterance is a statement, request, or command; and to tell whether we have finished an utterance or not. Intonation patterns can be useful in dealing with specific problems of punctuation.

The author concludes that there is increasing evidence that a structural approach to language has further application; in improving reading skills, in dealing with literature, and in teaching speech.

Bierbaum, Margaret L. "What is Linguistics?", Grade Teacher, LXXXII (March, 1965), 92-5.

Although this article is concerned with teaching the new grammar on the elementary level, I feel that it is appropriate because the author has actually taught the new grammar for three years.

The author suggests that teachers interested in the new approaches to the teaching of language should read the linguistically oriented language textbooks now appearing in increasing numbers, as well as the numerous articles in professional journals and periodicals.

To the question, "Is there anything wrong with the English textbooks most teachers are currently using?" the author answers: Yes!

Margaret Bierbaum states that the old grammar is concerned with spelling, punctuation and construction of rudimentary sentences. Most traditional textbooks are full of oversimplifications and definitions that may have a certain validity but do not go far enough. The old grammar is shallow, dealing only with surface aspects of the language.

In the new grammar, states the author, we attempt to teach the structure of the language. Correction of errors is still a part of the task, but the major emphasis is now on understanding language concepts. The teacher is constructive, not merely corrective, and the student learns to be an astute observer of the language.

The author cautions that the new grammar may be formidable because it uses a great many unfamiliar terms. Although the new terms will seem confusing at first, they fall into place as the general concepts of the new grammar are understood. Concepts are taught inductively. Leading questions prompt the student to arrive at the proper generalization through his own reasoning power. The author warns that this method is more time consuming, but far more rewarding for the student. Frames are also used. A frame is a stretch of utterance which shows the form and function of a particular grammatical item. By providing a sufficient number of frames the teacher leads the student to the correct generalization.

Mrs. Bierbaum suggests the appropriate concepts to teach on the elementary level, and gives a specific example of how one of these concepts would be developed inductively.

The author concludes that she is convinced that the new grammar is superior to the old in most ways and its adoption on a wide scale is inevitable.

Binney, James. "Linguistics in the Classroom Today," College English, XXIII (March, 1962), 492-94.

Professor Binney, a frequent contributor to professional journals, teaches at West Chester State College, Pennsylvania.

The author states that after all the argument during the past decade over the relative merits of traditional grammar and structural linguistics, some of the ideas developed by linguistic scientists have found their way into classrooms.

Further, he declares that no teacher has any valid reason to refuse any aid which he can obtain from grammar, linguistics, semantics, psychology, philology, or from anything else.

James Binney concludes the article with a hint to the English majors who intend to teach. They should know both structural linguistics and traditional grammar and be able to make the most of both of them.

Brother Jeffrey Likenbill, C.F.X. "Classroom Grammarians," English Journal, LXV (March, 1965), 227-30.

"With the present proposals to abandon traditional grammar for new structural rules and methods, the secondary teacher of English faces a dilemma. Replacing traditional grammar with structural grammar presents very serious difficulties."

This article presents a solution to one of the problems facing a teacher if he decides to employ some structural techniques in his teaching. The problem for the author was to find a way of introducing the new approach. The author decided to interest his students, thirty-eight eleventh grade honor students, in becoming amateur grammarians. A systematic plan for analysis was outlined to assist the students to devise their own grammar rules and, finally, to evaluate these classroom devised rules in relation to traditional textbook rules previously studied and learned.

The author concludes that "for the students, all confusing and ambiguous rules became suspect. They did not have to be convinced that grammar does not, and strictly speaking cannot, dictate rules which are divorced from basic speech patterns."

Cain, R. Donald. "What Do We Mean by Linguistics?" English Journal, LXV (May, 1965), 399-404.

The author quotes linguist Henry A. Gleason from a speech before a group of the National Council of Teachers of English meeting in 1961 in Philadelphia. Gleason presented, according to the author, two vitally important principles for the use of linguistic knowledge in schools. The first was that the teaching should be by showing students how to examine and test the facts of language for themselves, rather than presenting any collection of facts or alleged facts either "linguistic" or traditional, for mere rote learning. The second was that we should teach enough about the English language to pay off in actual use, because traditional grammar did not add enough to what students picked up by themselves, either in insight or in information, to make a real improvement in students' handling of it.

The author concludes "that school administrators and textbook publishers should not only learn more about the world of linguistic scholarship, they should also find means to keep this scholarship continually feeding into their programs, adapting and adjusting as time goes on.. They should not throw out what is perfectly viable and useful in traditional language instruction and terminology, but they should not evade their own responsibility by telling themselves fatuously that modern language scholarship is getting nowhere."

Carlsen, G. Robert. "Conflincting Assumptions in the Teaching of English," English Journal, LX (September, 1960), 377-86.

This article highlights the great difference that exists in many schools between actual classroom practice in teaching English and practice based on research and modern theory. In this article Dr. Carlsen, professor of English and education and head of the department of English at the University High School, State University of Iowa, identifies the basic assumptions underlying "traditional" and "modern" teaching of English:

TRADITIONAL

MODERN

Language must be uniform-Assumption if instruction has been successful.		1-Language is subject to infinite variations among its users.
Since language should be uniform, the individual usage should not vary.	-II-	One varies language to suit the various areas of his daily life.
Rules of English are absolute and unchanging	-III-	The English language is constantly changing; therefore there should be no absolute rules.
Verbal knowledge about structure of language is indispensable to learning.	-IV-	Language is a habit of behavior which is learned best through use.
Language arts curriculums must provide for a systematic presentation of language facts and structure.	-V-	Language facts should be presented informally as the need for them arises.
Language is best taught through drill.	-VI-	Language is best taught in communicative need situations.
Unless the teacher formally presents all facets of language the child will not master.	-VII-	Language habits are learned by imitation.
Teacher's basic responsibility is to teach the written form of language.	-VIII-	Each of the communication arts pose unique problems for the learner.
There is a clearly defined line between great literature and other writing.	-IX-	No continuum exists between the poorest and best in literature.
Therefore, schools should expose children only to the best in literature.	-X-	Students should have freedom of selection to develop taste in literature.

Carlson, G. Robert. "Conflicting Assumptions in the Teaching of English," English Journal, LX (September, 1960), 377-86.
(continued)

Children never find and -XI-
read great literature unless
schools teach great literature.

Schools should develop an
interest in reading and this
interest will lead to great
works when the student is able
and mature.

The mature reader will -XII-
read only the best literature.

The mature reader reads and
enjoys literature of varying
worth.

Literature appreciation can-XIII-
be developed in a child.

Literature appreciation depends
upon the child's liking for the
selection he is reading.

There are deferred values -XIV-
in the reading of literature.

Literature must have direct im-
pact on the reader for it to be
a meaningful experience.

Aesthetic values of liter- -XV-
ature are derived from the
study of structure and style.

Aesthetic values are derived from
the synthesis of experiences that
literature evokes in the reader.

Appreciation for literature-XVI-
is developed through know-
ledge of rules, conventions,
and techniques that authors
employ.

Appreciation is developed through
discussion of human understandings
and insights developed through
a work of art.

Great works of literature -XVII-
should be read by all educated
people in a culture.

Different works of literature
will give varying experiences
to different readers.

Dr. Carlson concludes his article by stating "The traditionalist seems to subscribe basically to the concept of teaching language as a skill, while the modernist's viewpoint is implied in the concept of teaching the language arts as art. To teach a skill is to teach--from the outside--something relatively mechanical. To teach an art is to develop--from the inside--something deeply personal."

Conlin, David A. "Form and Function: A Quandary," English Journal, LX (October, 1960), 457-63.

The agonizing process of evolving a more accurate grammar for presentation in the classroom goes on. Dr. Conlin, a professor of English education at the Arizona State University, Tempe, succinctly examines the problems of form and function in structural grammars pointing out that "in a modern analytic language we are still plagued with inflectional changes which at times point in the wrong direction. Since function determines meaning and therefore response, identification of function is of primary concern."

Dr. Conlin approaches the problem of form and function by raising three questions: "(1) What is the relationship of form to function in our English language? (2) How can we explain the lack of relationship of form to function in the English language? (3) How shall we identify and define our word classes, by form or by function, or by both form and function?"

After reviewing two linguists'--Charles C. Fries and James Sledd--approach to form and function, the author concludes that "The serious reader who is looking for a positive answer to the problem of classifying the parts of speech and the riddle of form and function will not find it in the linguistic textbooks. He will find wide disagreement in description, explanation, classification and nomenclature."

Dr. Conlin concludes that both form and function are necessary at times to explain the relationship of words and word groups within the sentence.

Conlin, David A. "Can Grammar Be Modernized?", English Journal, XLVII (April, 1958), 1st9-94.

The author of this journal article traces the revolution in grammar and the subsequent effects of that revolution in an analogous tone.

And now, like Rip Van Winkle waking up to life after twenty years of sleep, our teacher is confused to find that a revolution has taken place during a similar period--"a revolution in grammar." Carefully searching in the library stacks, he finds concrete evidence of this revolution--Bloomfield's Language, Fries's American English Grammar, Bloch and Trager's Outline of Linguistic Analysis, Pike's Intonation of American English, Fries's Structure of English, Whitehall's Structural Essentials of English and Roberts's Patterns of English.

The author concludes that the linguists have provided us with an objective diagnosis of the ills of our grammar, the way we describe our language. It is now up to the school men, the teachers, to face the problems of revising traditional grammar to bring it up to date. We have a major operation to perform, and the patient is already very sick.

Corbin, Richard. "Grammar and Usage: Progress but not Millennium," English Journal, LX (November, 1960), 548-55.

This discussion by Mr. Corbin, chairman of English at Hunter College High School, New York City and chairman of the Secondary Section of the National Council of Teachers of English, provides remarkable perspective on the problem of grammar and usage.

"What kind of grammar shall we teach?" This question, Mr. Corbin feels, is a key problem. After tracing the progress which has been made over the past four decades, the author implies that "structural" grammar is the answer to the question initially posed. However, the author warns, "We are not yet in the clear, for practice is a notorious laggard. If the Lord Himself were to throw down to us a tablet revealing a divine system of grammar, years hence we would undoubtedly still find some teachers trafficking with tradition. Structural grammar, by the admission of its own authors, is far from a perfect description of our language at work, but we, as teachers, will be remiss if we do not give it a careful scrutiny before we accept or reject it."

Francis, W. Nelson. "The Present State of Grammar," English Journal, LXIII (May, 1963), 317-21.

Dr. Francis of Brown University, Director of the Commission on the English Language of the National Council of Teachers of English and author of The Structure of American English (1958) which is annotated in section two of this bibliography, discusses recent developments in linguistic study.

According to the author, "There is more theorizing, more experimenting, and more original thinking going on in the field of grammatical study than there has been for quite a long time. Practical necessities have led to a re-examination of grammar and grammars."

The author declares that "We must now make up our minds as to whether grammar should be taxonomic or generative-transformational; whether it should concern itself with the methodology by which its rules are discovered or be content with workable rules however discovered; whether it should simply describe the structure of a given body of sentences or supply rules which will afford a test of grammaticality for sentences yet unborn. We must weigh the relative merits of basing grammatical study on a large corpus of collected material or on the intuitions of the expert native speaker. We must decide what purposes we want a grammar for and what level of accuracy we want it to attain. We must look into the connections between an interpretative grammar and a generative grammar. We must consider the relationship between phonology and grammar on the one hand, and between grammar and semantics on the other. The present state of grammatical study, in short, is both lively and exciting; although the present state of the grammarian may be frustrated and schizophrenic."

Francis, W. Nelson. "New Perspective on Teaching Language,"
College English, XXIII (March, 1962), 437-40.

The author feels that the inclusion of linguistic training in the undergraduate program of prospective elementary and secondary school English teachers could be brought about by pressing for its inclusion in the certification requirements of the several states. Francis says in the article that he knows of one school system-and a very desirable one to teach in-that has established linguistic training as a requisite for all new English teachers it employs.

According to the author, it is apparent that two things must be done without delay: preparation of future English teachers must be broadened to include more instruction in the elements of English linguistics, and opportunities for summer and in-service courses in this field must be greatly increased.

Gaskin, James R. "What is Linguistics?", High School Journal, XLIX (January, 1966), 157-61.

The author of this article, an English professor at the University of North Carolina, explains that the gap or lag between the linguist as scientist and the teacher as adapter and pedagogue is not new, but that it is most certainly wider in our day than ever before.

Gaskin proceeds with reasons for this gap or lag. One basic reason, he explains, is due to the explosion of linguistics in the twentieth century. Wars, missionary efforts, anthropological and other scholarly expeditions have sent Americans and Europeans into the farthest corners of the earth and have stimulated research in languages that went ignored before.

Gleason, H.A., Jr. "What Grammar?", Harvard Education Review, XXXIV (Summer, 1964), 342-59.

The author's Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics (1955) is one of the better introductions to new grammar.

Gleason begins this article by indicating that grammar is one of the least liberally conceived subjects in the school curriculum. Grammar is seldom mentioned when the values of the teaching of English are discussed. That, rather than being simply indifferent to the values of the humanities, the current teaching of grammar is actively hostile. That, not only does it contribute nothing to the announced objectives of English teaching, but it goes a long way toward rendering the whole ineffective. Gleason declares that we must find a new, more broadly conceived grammar, and a new, less constricted frame for it.

The author surveys the new grammars--historical, structural, and transformational-generative--and remarks that it is this complex of systems and theories that the curriculum reformer must look for material if he desires to replace the conventional school grammar. Gleason remarks that the choice is presented, not so much in the form of an assortment of fully worked out comprehensive grammars, as a copious mass of materials from which the elements can be selected. It is up to the people primarily concerned with the curriculum to build an integrated system out of the materials available.

Gleason emphasizes the need for a strengthened grammar program in our schools. According to the author, the first need is for greater depth at many places which he enumerates. A second need is for an upward extension of the scope of grammar. The third need is to broaden the concern of grammar teaching to comprehend more than a single form of the language (i.e. expanded to become a full study to include both its structure and the variation of its patterns). The fourth need is to broaden the language curriculum beyond English. The syntax, phonology, dialectology and historical development of the students' own language are clarified--and hence most easily taught--from a perspective of general linguistics. The fifth need is for a total change in the method of presentation of grammar. The author's preference is inductive teaching, the leading of students to discover principles for themselves.

Groff, Patrick J. "Is Knowledge of the Parts of Speech Necessary?" English Journal, LXI (September, 1961), 413-15.

The author sampled what he considered to be representative English textbooks and found that "These textbooks suggest to the English teacher that he give almost thirty percent of the language curriculum to study of the parts of speech."

However, the author points to the discrepancy which exists between research and actual practice. Research by John R. Searles and G. Robert Carlsen in the Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 454-470, indicate "there is no shred of evidence of any kind to substantiate the continued emphasis on grammar prevalent in most classrooms."

How then should the teacher answer the question, "Is knowledge of the parts of speech necessary?" Mr. Groff concludes his article by declaring that "If his administrators allow him to follow the research on the matter, if he is allowed to use the English composition textbooks selectively, if he is not faced with the prospect of having to administer a standardized test that demands that the parts of speech be taught, if he realizes that public opinion is affected most by functional results, in this case by the development of ability to write rather than by an isolated knowledge of the parts of speech, and if he understands that colleges and universities will not require the knowledge of parts of speech in their entrance examinations or for placement in English, he can safely answer, 'No.'"

Guth, Hans P. "Two Cheers for Linguistics," College English, XXII (April, 1961), 489-92.

Dr. Guth, Associate Professor of English at San Jose State College and author of A Handbook for College Writing (1959), An Introductory College English (1959), and Concise English Handbook (1961), declares that even an interested outsider, the teacher of literature or of rhetoric, can follow developments in grammar with the same care and attention as developments in other disciplines immediately related to his own. Further, Dr. Guth asserts that the immediate benefits he will derive are partly a matter of perspective, partly a matter of solid information not available elsewhere. Emphasis upon structure leads to a "horizontal" rather than a "vertical" analysis; the student is closer to the actual "feel" of language when he approaches it through the study of structural pattern rather than through the study of individual parts of speech, of declensions and conjugations.

Further, Dr. Guth explains that the new grammar displays sentence patterns rather than cataloguing the individual parts of speech, of declensions and conjugations. In addition the terminology is often more native, unpretentious and immediately intelligible. In contrast the ambiguity of conventional definitions results from their merely groping for relationships that are exceedingly complex.

Further value of linguistics, according to Dr. Guth, is that linguistics can deliver concrete information in some areas (i.e., intonation) where all used to be unsystematized intuition.

The author suggests that the reader evidence the correlation between traditional and linguistic grammar in Sledd's Short Introduction to English Grammar and Brown and Bailey's Form in Modern English.

Ianni, Lawrence. "An Answer to Doubts about the Usefulness of the New Grammar," LXIV (November, 1964), 597-602.

In challenging the statements of Professor Don M. Wolfe in a recent English Journal article which is annotated in this same section of the bibliography, Professor Ianni presents what he considers the contributions of linguistics.

The author presents the five sentence patterns, each exemplified with a sentence from a well-known writer, which Professor Wolfe used to assess the value of traditional grammar. Professor Ianni then claims that the new grammar "provides a superior means of the very pattern practice that Professor Wolfe finds effectively taught by traditional grammar, because it permits the separation of grammatical and rhetorical considerations, each of which deserves its own teaching emphasis, and because it permits controlled substitution within the framework of a pattern that will prevent fine writing and unidiomatic grotesqueries."

Professor Ianni presents a few examples of the kind of pattern practice one can do with the new grammar. Dr. Ianni claims not that his exercise is superior to Dr. Wolfe's, but that "modern grammar offers a means to make imitation systematic. It offers a superior means to the same end."

Ives, Sumner. "Grammar and Style," English Journal, LXIII (May, 1963), 364-70.

Dr. Ives of Syracuse University describes a procedure for marking and extracting the grammatical components of English sentences. The aim of the analysis is to aid in the study of style and the teaching of composition.

The author declares that "There is a relationship between grammar and writing." Dr. Ives predicates his article by declaring that "The process of writing includes at least three component activities: deciding what to say, choosing words and grammatical constructions to say it, and representing these with orthographic symbols."

"Next," the author says, "any procedure for marking and extracting the grammatical components of English sentences must employ a description of the English grammatical system." This procedure, according to Dr. Ives, "does not require that the elements in the system be classified according to any particular set of criteria." The author assumes that a written sentence is a unit of meaning resulting from a unified complex of grammatical parts, and that these parts contribute to the unit of meaning in identifiable ways.

The remainder of the article is devoted to a description of the procedure for marking and extracting and charting grammatical components of English sentences

Lamberts, J.J. "Basic Concepts for Teaching from Structural Linguistics," English Journal, XLIX (March, 1960), 172-6.

The author feels that a sounder picture of language can be sketched by outlining a few of the fundamental concepts of structural linguistics.

Language is a form or type or aspect of human behavior. Language is something which human beings produce and which in turn characterizes them as people. That is to say, human talk is the subject matter of linguistic science--the spoken language is primary and the written language is derived from the spoken.

The next concept is that language as a form of human behavior may be studied objectively. Bear in mind that the linguists' product constitutes a description of the language. Our grammar books still commonly employ prescription. The descriptive statement is based on the data of the language itself; the prescriptive statement attempts to impose on the language an external authority.

From an objective examination of the language it is possible to derive a comprehensive description of that language and moreover a description that will be orderly. Language can be explored as a whole in order to discover recurrent patterns of configurations. The several classic studies in linguistics attest to this: John Kenyon's American Pronunciation (phonetics), C.C. Fries' American English Grammar (morphology), Trager and Smith's An Outline of English Structure (systematization of sounds), Fries' Structure of English (systematization of morphology or grammar of the parts of speech).

The final concept of structural linguistics, according to the author, is that language has its own unique system or structure, the totality of such structural features being the grammar of the language.

The author concludes by saying that structural linguistics is more than another set of names for the parts of speech or another way of diagramming sentences. It is a completely different way of looking at language, of sorting out the data, of classifying the findings. The emphasis is upon the procedure not the results. It is possible that linguistic science will not do all of the wonderful things which some of its more exuberant advocates have promised. It may help the teacher approach with more certainty some of the problems in sentence construction and in usage, both in speaking and writing.

Lees, Robert B. "The Promise of Transformational Grammar," English Journal, LII (May, 1963), 327-30.

The author of this journal article states that the transformational grammarian views the central task of linguistics to be the specification of the internal organization of sentence enumerating grammars, and he takes a much more abstract view of the grammatical structure of sentences.

One important feature of the transformational view of sentence structure, according to Robert Lees, is that all such questions about ambiguity and syntactic functions receive answers by explicit grammatical rules called "grammatical transformations." In transformational studies the grammar of a language is viewed as a set of ordered rules which characterize the infinite set of grammatical descriptions of its sentences.

In the conclusion of the article, Lees stresses two points. First he says there is reasonable hope that in the near future material will become available for the schools to explain in simple terms many of the results and insights of the most recent research in English syntax and phonology. Finally, if English grammar is to be taught at all in secondary schools there is little justification for teaching it in conjunction with rhetoric or literature; rather, such a study of language belongs in the area of science and general education along with psychology and anthropology.

Levin, Samuel R. "Comparing Traditional and Structural Grammar,"
College English, XXI (February, 1960), 260-65.

The author says at the outset that the traditional grammar often fails to satisfactorily explain the linguistic facts, whereas structural grammar does not fail in this way--precisely because it deals with them.

Traditional grammar, according to the author, contains semantic fallacy (indeterminacy of meaning), logical fallacy (order in language corresponding to the putative order of the universe), and normative fallacy (necessary to set up prescriptive norms for usage).

On the other hand, the structuralist has made a total commitment. He believes and proceeds on the assumption that the grammar of a language consists of the linguistic facts of that language and nothing else. This commitment entails a certain cost because large areas that are customarily regarded as parts of the grammarian's domain are excluded or curtailed--consideration of meaning, questions of correctness, rhetoric, philology, or style.

Long, Ralph B. "English Grammar in the 1960's," College English, XXI (February, 1960), 265-75.

The long neglect of English grammar in the United States, the author declares, has been coming to an end in the 1950's. The best grammars of English for a century have been the work of teachers of English as a second language.

A considerable amount of English grammar is now taught in courses in general linguistics. One general linguist, Harris, whose Methods in Structural Linguistics (1951) is a basic work in its field, has made important contributions to our understanding of the grammar of English during the 1950's. Two important Bloomfieldian grammars of English have appeared in the 1950's: the Fries' Structure of English (1952) and Hill's Introduction to Linguistic Structure (1958), the latter largely an expansion of the Trager and Smith Outline of English Structure (1951). Several textbooks employing the Fries analysis have appeared.

In review, the author states that the Fries' grammar is revolutionary largely in terminology and spirit. The shapeless category of "function words" to which Fries assigns exceptional syntactic effectiveness and exceptional lexical ineffectiveness is neither new or defensible.

Hill's work, according to the writer, represents a more decisive break with tradition. To an unprecedented extent Hill's grammar is based on careful phonological analysis, and it excludes meaning from analysis with notable rigor. The terminology is also farther from that of the schools than is Fries'.

The author feels that the grammar of the schools does require two generations of revision. The grammar of the 1960's should be entirely analytic and systematic in organization and presentation. It is important too that the analysis taught should grant informal standard English full equality with general standard English and should assign formal standard English the minor place it deserves. Good English is flexible, not rigid; and it is informal in style much more often than it is formal.

Continuing, the author declares that the grammar of the 1960's should begin with analysis of the structure of clauses and of clause equivalents. Clauses are built around minimally complete sequences of the kind that Harris called kernels. The grammar of the 1960's should accept the word as the smallest unit in syntactic analysis. It is doubtful that the English grammar of the 1960's should employ the concept of the morpheme; however it should be related to meaning somewhat as phonemics is

Long, Ralph B. "English Grammar in the 1960's," College English, XXI (February, 1960), 265-75. (continued)
related to phonetics. There is no reason to believe that the grammar of the 1960's would be improved by being based in a carefully worked out phonemics in which stress, pitch, juncture, and vowel and consonant sounds were analyzed before syntax was attempted. The grammarian can proceed without concerning himself about their precise content in particular spoken versions.

Long, Ralph B. "Words, Meanings, Literacy and Grammar," English Journal, XLVII (April, 1958), 195-99.

According to the author, the grammar which is taught in our schools is in need of revision. Every branch of learning requires reformulation as the generations go by, but reformulation of the school grammar is involved in exceptional difficulties.

Long declares that the grammar taught in the schools would be of better quality if our college and university departments of English had taken an interest in it.

Dr. Long concludes by saying that we must not defend the school grammar where it needs revision.

Long, Ralph B. "Linguistics and Language Teaching: Caveats from English," Modern Language Journal, XLV (April, 1961), 149-55.

Dr. Long states that Fries's Structure of English (1952) is the author's attempt to construct at least the groundwork of a scientific Bloomfieldian grammar for present-day American English.

Though new linguists recognize the same Old Testament, Bloomfield's Language (1933), they have not been able to agree on Gospels. The sketchy Trager and Smith Outline of English Structure (1951) and the fuller Hill Introduction to Linguistic Structures (1958) are attempts to formulate a Bloomfieldian grammar.

McKowen, Clark. "The Decline and Fall of a Grammarian," English Journal, LXII (February, 1962), 100-5.

The sub-title of this article by Clark McKowen, chairman of the department of English at Stagg High School, Stockton, California, is "A Sort of Picaresque Tale."

The tale concern an ignorant young man who went forth into the byways of the world to seek his fortune. He completed his university work after much travail with a course in advanced grammar. Then he began to teach emulating his colleagues, hoping the meaning of it all would reveal itself. He only became more confused. He began to ask questions: "Why do schools teacher grammar?" He sought answers to these questions from his colleagues, from so-called authorities, and finally from journals. The tale ends with the ignorant young man collecting abalones on Lower Shnook Peninsula.

The value of this article lies in the implication that "nobody" has all the answers when it comes to English grammar.

Mallis, Jackie. "An Experiment with the New Grammar," English Journal, XLVI (October, 1957), 425-27.

As a background for the author's "experiment," an in-service workshop in structural linguistics was held over the Easter weekend for members of her high school English department. Dr. Harold B. Allen of the University of Minnesota was the consultant for the workshop who used C.C. Fries's The Structure of English.

The author was interested enough in the workshop to followup by introducing it to her senior class as a preview to a more formal study of grammar the next semester.

Mallis explains that she decided to try Paul Roberts' Patterns of English for three reasons: (1) to help the slow students and those with little grammar background over the psychological hurdle, (2) to review fundamentals for the forgetters in the group, and (3) to challenge the superior students with a new way of handling material they already knew well.

The author concluded the article with results of the "experiment." The reaction of students was favorable; their writing has become clearer and more vivid as they have begun to recognize the contribution each part of speech has to make with communication.

Matthew, Eleanor, McMahon, Johanne E., Schukart, Janice, and Stones, Charles. "English Language Study in Portland," English Journal, LII (May, 1963), 353-61.

The value of the Portland, Oregon, curriculum study has been unquestioned by educators in the United States. Many feel that it is a significant step in the right direction.

This article presents actual syllabi of linguistics courses offered in various high schools in Portland, Oregon.

Johanne E. McMahon of Washington High School reports on the ninth grade study of syntax. The study begins with discussions of the nature and development of our language and the important place of grammar in language study. Students discuss types of dialects, standard and nonstandard English, and some practical implications. Syntax is presented not as a new concept in grammar but as a careful description of the system by which a language works. Students are cautioned that they must learn new terminology and that they must put aside some traditional grammar terms they have been using.

The course text is Paul Roberts' Patterns of English (1959). A very careful sequence of study starts with form classes: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Next, structure groups: determiners, auxiliary verbs, and intensifiers. The next unit considers sentence patterns: noun and verb clusters; the p-groups or prepositional phrases; the s-groups or subordinate clauses; function units, such as subject, object, indirect object, linking verb complement, units following prepositions, noun modifiers, verb modifiers, sentence modifiers and object complements. The next unit of study is on intonation, and the final unit considers the phoneme.

A tenth grade course in lexicography is pursued for its own value rather than for immediate practical applications to writing and literature according to Charles Stones of Grant High School. The first unit considers etymology with initial assignments asking simply that students leaf through a dictionary at random and look for words whose etymologies reveal a startling shift in meaning. Mr. Stones indicates that exploration comes first and generalizations follow. For the students by analyzing their data--their lists of words--several principles of semantic shift become apparent. Metaphorical overtones emerge; relationships among English words and links with other languages appear; and historical changes in meaning show tendencies of generalization and specialization of amelioration and pejoration. Processes of

Matthew, Eleanor, McMahon, Johanne E., Schukart, Janice, and Stones, Charles. "English Language Study in Portland," English Journal, LII (May, 1963), 353-61. (continued) growth as well as change in English vocabulary become apparent, also.

Another unit on the comparison of various dictionaries helps to bury the notion that one consults the dictionary.

Eleanor Matthew of Girls Polytechnic High School reports on an eleventh grade course on linguistic geography and dialect. No textbook is used; however the instructor makes extensive use of notes and outlines, blackboard or duplicated presentations, and recordings. The first step, according to the author, is to establish the idea that dialect goes beyond pronunciation for dialect differences appear in word choice and in grammatical variants.

The initial goal of the instructor is to establish a range of linguistic diversity to be explored and then to move to discussion of principal dialect areas in the United States. Mrs. Matthew indicates the importance of a proper attitude at this point--that linguistic interest is not criticism nor ridicule.

The next step is to explain the procedures of linguistic inquiry and the activity of the field worker. The students are presented with an actual checklist used in collecting material for the Linguistic Atlas of the Pacific Northwest. According to the author, students are so eager to become volunteer field workers that it is necessary to limit the number of checklists each student may take out in order to confine within reasonable limits the task of tallying and summarizing results.

Before embarking on the field trip, the students discuss the kind of respondent to select and the methods of obtaining cooperation from the respondent.

Each student returns from one to three checklists and gives a brief oral report to the class on findings that interest him.

Tallying is done in class, with checklists divided by dialect areas and tallied in separate groups. The results are then duplicated for the interested students.

Supplementary activities include individual oral reports on literary selections illustrating dialect: Indiana verse of James W. Riley, the Pennsylvania Dutch dialogue in the stories of Elsie Sungmaster, or the Middle-Georgia dialect of Joel Chandler Harris's Uncle Remus Tales.

Also included in the linguistic curriculum is a course in the history of English with a short unit on the nature of "correctness." This course is presented at the twelfth grade level by Janice Schukart of Madison

Matthew, Eleanor, McMahon, Johanne E., Schukart, Janice, and Stones, Charlesl "English Language Study in Portland," English Journal, LII (May, 1963), 353-61. (continued) High School.

The textbook used in the course is the History of English by W. Nelson Francis. Units of study progress through Old, Early, and Middle English with samples from West Saxon Gospels, Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, Beowulf, Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, and another from the first folio edition of Hamlet. The author states that tape recordings of these selections arouse discussion and questioning.

Meade, Richard A. "Who Can Learn Grammar?" English Journal, LXI (February, 1961), 87-92.

Dr. Meade, a professor of English education at the University of Virginia, through research suggests that a more important question than "What grammar to teach?" is "What students should study any formal grammar?"

After considerable experimental testing in the spring of 1959 with seniors in a Virginia high school which revealed information about the extent of their grammar learning in relation to their intelligence, the author suggests that the data in this article establishes a clear relationship between mental ability and the learning of grammar whether traditional or structural. Therefore, Dr. Meade makes the following recommendations for the administration of secondary school English classes: "(1) Those students who can learn principles of grammar have the opportunity of doing so without suffering the tiresome repetition of content which bright students have often had to face. (2) Those students who have little chance of succeeding with the learning of grammar have this content eliminated from their curriculum."

Miller, Frances. "Structural Plotting for Understanding," English Journal, LXII (December, 1962), 632-39.

This article by Mrs. Miller, a teacher in the Franklin Junior High School, Muncie, Indiana, summarizes her research to determine the practicality of application of the structural approach in teaching language arts in the seventh grade.

Four seventh grade classes were involved in the experiment. A dual system of terminology was used to lessen confusion of students participating.

The author concludes that "Experiments indicate that language structure can be an intellectually stimulating subject. Another observation is that the structural approach produced a greater relationship between analyzing a sentence and writing one. It seems safe to conclude that seventh graders can use linguistic terminology and that structural materials are applicable in teaching this age group."

Newsome, Verna L. "Expansions and Transformations to Improve Sentences," English Journal, LXIV (May, 1964), 327-35.

The chief contribution of the new grammars to composition may be to style in writing. In this article, Miss Newsome, a professor of English at the University of Wisconsin, states that "The purpose of this paper is not to discuss elements of style but rather to analyze processes of forming certain structures which can be used to achieve style."

The author explains the step-by-step processes of coordination and of subordination by transformations--that is, by combining two or more sentences to form a new sentence. This procedure, according to the author, "demonstrates the important principle that grammatical structures rather than ideas are coordinated--that what follows the coordinator must be the grammatical equivalent of what precedes it."

Miss Newsome presents the transformation process with exercises in which each input sentence is rewritten as a relative clause by the substitution of a relative pronoun for a noun or noun-headed structure which is also present in the consumer sentence or has an equivalent there. The relative clause is then incorporated into the consumer sentence to produce the output sentence.

The author concludes her article with the belief that "transforming two or more sentences to form a new sentence reveals the processes of coordination and subordination more clearly and brings alternative grammatical structures into sharper contrast than the additive method."

Roberts, Paul. "Linguistics in the Teaching of Composition," English Journal, LII (May, 1963), 331-36.

This article should be of specific interest to high school teachers of English who feel there is a correlation between grammar and composition.

Dr. Roberts, a national leader in applied linguistics, introduces this article by emphasizing the fact that we have several grammars of the sentence, but we have no grammar of the paragraph, the theme, or the book.

The author states personally that linguistic science has no cure for the problems of the composition class, so long as that class is viewed as principally a means of teaching people to write better. There isn't any cure because it really isn't a disease. Roberts affirms that linguistics offers no clever way of making writers out of non-readers.

What linguistics does offer to departments of English, according to the author, is a subject matter.

Dr. Roberts believes that English departments need to stop being service departments. A steadily smaller proportion of their time is spent in teaching the subjects they are trained in--English language and literature. Today, thanks to the developments in linguistics, we can do quite a lot better than we could twenty or thirty years ago. Knowledge of the structure of the English language is increasing rapidly and becoming increasingly available to teachers of English.

But, and Roberts stresses this point, linguistics is not opposite to traditional grammar, rather a refinement, an acceptance of essential features and a pruning away of irrelevant or erroneous ones. Roberts claims that three grammarians--Jespersen, Fries, and Chomsky--are essentially traditionalists because they have not rejected the grammar of the past but improved upon it.

Finally, Dr. Roberts asserts that the only type of traditional grammar that we can be seriously concerned with at the present time is the latest one--generative transform grammar. This grammar is traditional grammar made explicit and rigorous. Roberts feels that we are now in a position where grammar can be taught, and not just endlessly reviewed as has been the practice heretofore.

Schuster, Edgar H. "How Good is the New Grammar," English Journal, L (September, 1961), 392-7.

In the fall of 1959, the author did some "action" research to determine how much grammar his students could learn through a wholly structural approach.

Four classes--two twelfth, one eleventh, and one tenth--were involved in the experiment. One class in each grade used only Paul Roberts' Patterns of English; the remaining twelfth grade class used a traditional approach, with the New Century Handbook of Writing as a basic text.

The experiment had four questions: (1) how effective the new grammar was, (2) whether method of instruction would affect attitude of students toward study of grammar, (3) whether structural approach would have a positive effect on writing ability, and (4) which grade level Roberts' text would be most effective, if new grammar continued.

The results of the experiment indicated that the type of grammar studied affects neither the ability to punctuate nor knowledge of function units. The author concluded that there was some slight evidence that the new grammar was more successful for teaching modification and rather strong evidence that it was superior to the traditional approach for teaching the parts of speech.

Attitude questions used in the experiment point up quite clearly the changes in attitude toward the study of grammar. The most popular reason given for liking the new grammar was that it was "more interesting," "exciting," or "challenging" (26 students); second and third in the running were "easier" (19 students) and "different" or "less boring" (17 students); sixteen students said they "learned more," and another sixteen said the new method was "more logical."

According to the author, the change in writing ability as measured by the tests used was relatively small for all classes and on both tests.

The author concluded that the new grammar may never totally replace the traditional system, but that the new grammar will not pass away.

Searles, John R. "New Wine in Old Bottles," English Journal, LXI (November, 1961), 515-21.

Dr. Searles, a professor of English and education at the University Wisconsin, gives specific answers in this article to the pertinent questions, "How really new is the 'new' grammar?" and "Can there be a wedding of old and new in the classroom?"

The author uses Paul Roberts' Patterns of English to point out that "A substantial part of orthodox grammar is still perfectly recognizable under the new system."

From this point of departure, Dr. Searles proceeds to build a "linguistically-valuable" frame around his primary purpose of the study of language "which should be to enrich the structural resources of our students to the end that thought and expression will be developed together, with a growing maturity in ideas accompanied by the linguistic resources which alone will allow these ideas to find adequate expression." The author cites "new classifications, emphasis on position as means of identifying the parts of speech, bringing together a number of facts about language which traditional textbooks often discuss separately, the system of diagramming used by Charles Fries (pattern practice), use of nonsense sentences to study grammatical structure, and emphasis on spoken language" as being significant contributions by linguists toward achieving the primary purpose of the study of language.

The author concludes that "Our aid as teachers should determine what we draw from structural linguistics and what we retain from traditional grammar. Neither zeal for innovation nor fondness for the past is relevant."

Senatore, John J. "SVO: A Key to Clearer Language Teaching," English Journal, XLVII (October, 1957), 419-24.

The author, a teacher in the Florence, Colorado, High School describes a "sentence pattern method" system which he designed and applied in English classes on all secondary grade levels.

Simply, the sentence' pattern method is a system of sentence study based on the premise that as people use language they develop habits of talking and writing, patterns of word-orders to communicate. By studying the current dominant patterns or habits of the used language, students learn how the language works.

The author explains that the first step in this process was for the students to set up a general objective: to change language habits. Next, the students became conscious of their language habits and of popular sentence patterns. From this evolved a definition of a "good" sentence.

The process then switches from general objectives to specifics. The students learn how to make clear, vivid sentence patterns appropriate to particular circumstances. A prerequisite, the students decide, to making clear, vivid sentence patterns is the relationship between words and groups of words in a sentence-syntax.

A definition of a sentence evolves from a discussion: the smallest vehicle (unit of language) used to carry our thoughts and feelings to others. Three things, they decide, are needed to make a sentence as arbitrarily defined: (1) a popular word order, (2) a word that shows that something lives, and (3) a word that names.

Next, students decide on sentence patterns popularly used in English today. Ultimately, they decide that every-other sentence, then, is a variation and/or combination of the basic patterns:

1. S-V pattern
2. S-V-S pattern
3. S-V-O pattern

The author explains that the students practice oral and written variations of these patterns in class.

Ultimately, various groups of signal-words were discussed in relation to sentence position and word or groups of words relationships, and new patterns were designed and practiced by the students.

The author claims that this system is more lucid and more effective in making students use the language while they learn.

Sister Mary Emmanuel. "Must We Teach Traditional Grammar?", Catholic School Journal, LX (December, 1960), 36-7.

The author begins this article with a very interesting hypothetical dialogue between English teacher and class: "The man beat the boy up." What part of speech is up in this sentence? The younger student will probably answer with baffled silence or with illogical guesses. The more literate may answer: "Up is an adverb modifying the verb beat." Some may qualify this with, "But this is not a good English sentence. It is a colloquial expression. Up is unnecessary."

Very well, we shall delete up. "The man beat the boy." Perhaps we shall add unmercifully or cruelly to relieve the starkness and/or the ambiguity resulting from the omission. "The man beat the boy cruelly," is a good English sentence which does not disturb our how-when-where concept of adverbs as modifying verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

We turn to a sentence from the English Language Arts in the Secondary Schools (National Council of Teachers of English, New York, 1956, p.358): "The bandit held up the train." Another from Charlton Laird, The Miracle of Language (New York, 1953, p. 182): "The bomber hlew up." Is up a preposition or adverb? Are these sentences so colloquial as to be disqualified from grammatical analysis? Granted that blew up may be supplanted by exploded without change of meaning, but how may the idea of held up be otherwise conveyed without risk of pedantry? Have we not changed the style and savor of the other two cases in that direction?

We may of course keep the sentences unchanged and insist that up is a preposition or an adverb. We may silence the questions of the more perceptive with "Because that's just the way it is," and perhaps draw neat lines on the blackboard to demonstrate the relationship.

After many years of teaching English at various levels, the author concedes that her original enthusiasm for traditional grammar has cooled to puzzled devotion. She states that she was distinctly relieved to learn that the traditional grammar system was suspect among a considerable group of learned teachers and students of language.

Sister Mary Emmanuel concludes by declaring that the up question dramatized in the dialogue is only one of the many which arise in the process of trying to discover a relationship between our language and its grammar.

Sister Mary Immaculate. "Generative Grammar," Catholic School Journal, LXVI (January, 1966), 50-2.

The validity of this article is substantiated by the fact that Sister Mary Immaculate experimented with a linguistic course in the tenth grade at Bishop Fenwick High School, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

By "new" grammar Sister explains we mean an altering of emphasis, a reassessing of values. What is actually "new" in this grammar is negligible. The reorientation process that the linguist has initiated is just one result of the shifting point of view.

In a traditional versus linguistic summary, Sister explains that the traditional approach assures: (1) A fixed and uniform language tradition to be transmitted, (2) A grammar which can present that tradition in the form of a uniform set of rules and examples, (3) A teacher who can interpret and apply those rules in a practical situation, and (4) A malleable student who either wants to know or must be forced to accept what is right or wrong.

On the other hand, the linguist objects to the validity of these claims: (1) on scientific grounds because a fixed grammar is possible only to a dead language, (2) on moral grounds because there is no established criterion which would arbitrarily decide who tells whom, (3) on social grounds because the student must make his own choice of "class," and (4) on practical grounds because insistence on rules does not automatically produce good speakers and writers.

With this background Sister launched into a new grammar course for tenth graders using Paul Roberts' English Sentences (1962) and English Syntax (1964). She described English by supposing that language consists of two fundamentally different kinds of sentences--a relatively small set of kernel or basic sentences, and transformations, more complicated sentences that can be explained as deviations of the kernel sentences. Given the kernels, we can demonstrate the great variety of English by explaining the rules by which complicated sentences can be made out of basic ones.

Sister Mary Immaculate states that it is possible to summarize some of the basic facts we learned, but that attitudes which are really more important than the facts are much more difficult to express.

The author presented these observable results of her experiment with new grammar: (1) Students acquired better normal speech habits; they became aware of the reasonableness of good speech, (2) Writing improved beyond normal advance expected; the students stopped using sentence fragments because they began looking for basic sentence patterns (kernels), and (3) They were generally interested in the innovation which gave them new insights into their language.

Sister Mary Roselyn. "A Teacher Looks at Linguistics," Catholic School Journal, LXIV (October, 1964), 5^A-9.

Sister Mary Roselyn teaches at Mercy High School in Detroit, Michigan.

This article is essentially a review of Charles C. Fries's The Structure of English.

The author begins by asking a question, "What exactly is linguistics?" The dictionary defines it as the science of language, and beyond that, it would be wisest to look to the linguists themselves and their theories.

Sister states that The Structure of English by Charles C. Fries is an interesting book in which to discover the new experiments in language. The linguist, according to Professor Fries, is usually concerned with finding out how a language works in fulfilling all the functions of communication in the particular social group that uses it.

First the linguist labels "obsolete" the traditional "complete thought" definition of a sentence. Another big item is the dethronement of the eight parts of speech under their familiar names. In their stead, Fries sets up a language class system. It is true that these are merely two features of the new "structural approach," but we can use them as a point of departure.

Fries defines the sentence as a single free utterance. It is free in the sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device.

Sister feels that the linguists are justified in their criticism of the traditional "fill-in-the-blanks" method of teaching correct usage. That "repetition is the mother of all learning" may be true, but if we stop here, we fail. How often have our students written entire exercises, for example, on the placement of direct quotations, and when they were asked to write a paragraph the following day, showed no evidence of ever being aware of the direct quotation? We must make direct application of our lesson and not confine it to a series of isolated sentences, not even composed by the student himself.

Another just accusation against some traditional grammarians, according to the author, is that they often make the mistake of regarding grammatical terms as an end in themselves. The students memorize endless rows of cases, conjugations, persons, numbers, tenses and voices without any kind of understanding behind them.

Sledd, James. "Grammar or Gramarye?" English Journal, LX (May, 1960), 293-303.

Dr. Sledd, a Rhodes Scholar, has published widely in the fields of language history and language structure. His latest book, A Short Introduction to English Grammar, is annotated in section two of this bibliography.

This article, inspired by "Grammar and Writing," by Professor Bertrand Evans which appeared in the Educational Forum for January, 1959, is angry but significant because it presents a statement of the position of the structural linguist.

The author says, "The teaching of writing is a mysterious process. For myself, I often doubt that I can teach a student to write better; I sometimes hope that I can help him learn. But my uncertainty does not extend to the teaching of English grammar. I know I can teach grammar, and I teach it for a good reason. The proper study of mankind is man, and there is nothing so basic to our humanity as our language. I could not prove, and I know no one else who can prove, that the vast sums devoted to the teaching of English grammar pay off in terms of better student writing. I know expert linguists who write badly, and I know students who write well but could no more define an auxiliary verb than they could lay an egg."

Dr. Sledd concludes that Professor Evans and his colleagues "believe that education can only be dictatorial and that there is just one way to teach. I believe that education can never be dictatorial and that there are many ways of teaching. They believe in gramarye. I believe in grammar."

Sledd, James. "Snafu, Fubar, or Brave New World?: National Trends in the Teaching of Grammar," High School Journal, XLIX (January, 1966), 162-65.

Although this article is quite satiristic in tone, the author presents some well-documented insights into the teaching of grammar which every teacher of English should read.

James Sledd begins his article by suggesting that experiment with new grammars in the schools would be less hazardous if the study of English grammar were itself more settled. At least four different grammatical systems, each with its own variants, are presently competing for pedagogic favor: (1) traditional, (2) scholarly non-structural (Jespersen, Curme, Long), (3) American structural (Trager, Smith, Fries), and (4) Transformational (Chomsky).

The author presents the state of English today: (1) that nobody is satisfied with our teaching of English grammar, (2) that there is, however, no general agreement on what is wrong or what we should do about it, (3) that departments of English and schools of education refuse to train prospective teachers adequately for their work in grammar and composition, (4) that we must therefore abandon hope for an adequate supply of really competent teachers, (5) that the untrained teachers being turned out face a peculiarly confused and confusing situation in the field of English linguistics, (6) that the confusion is increased by the controversies about the purposes and values of grammatical instruction, (7) that suitable textbooks and teaching materials are available neither for structural nor for transformational grammar, (8) that all forms of modern grammar are now under violent attack by intellectual bookburners, (9) that the American public will never pay for the kind of teaching it wants and finally (10) that the struggling apprentice teacher cannot expect much help or guidance from professional societies, foundations or governmental agencies.

Sledd concludes that we are in a bad way, and things are not likely to get much better.

Slothower, Willian R. "Language Textbooks: A Survey," English Journal, LIV (January, 1965), 8-16.

The purpose of this survey was to examine the high school language textbooks with several questions in mind: (1) What is the content, the field of study, of language arts as conceived in the textbooks? What material, in short, is presented for study? (2) To what extent do the books reflect recent developments in language study: (a) grammar, (b) usage, (c) semantics? (3) What is the sequence of grammar study between books in a series? (4) How do the books approach usage? How do they define good English? What evidence or rationale is offered for preferring one usage over another?

The textbooks surveyed were The English Language, Guide to Modern English, New Building Better English, Your Language, English in Action, Heath Handbook of English, English Grammar and Composition, and Enjoying English.

The writer states that grammar gets the bulk of attention in the textbooks, that grammar is highly repetitive from year to year and book to book.

Concerning linguistics, the author concludes that the linguistic treatment of English grammar in school textbooks has been negligible. Where a linguistic approach has been included in a series, it has with one exception, the McGraw-Hill series, been included only as a gesture.

There is certainly no sweeping movement in the direction of linguistic analysis.

Stegall, Carrie. "Linguistics and I," Education Digest, XXVII (October, 1961), 50-2.

The author of this article teaches in the Holliday Public Schools, Texas

Carrie Stegall indicates that having been stripped of her grammatical armor, she finds that her vision has been extended. She explains that by looking she has found tentative success with the new grammar. This new "wonder drug" seems to be the exact opposite of the semi-cure to which she had been submitted.

The author explains the linguistic process as one that begins at the base of the disease, speech, proceeds to writing and then, if need be, to grammar. This process, she explains, is opposite to the traditional method which begins with the book of pseudo grammar, proceeds to writing and then to speech. The author continues with the analogy by pointing out that if the average patient does not want to continue with the whole cure, to formal speech and writing, he can, nevertheless, acquire a measure of success in acceptable informal usage, sufficient to insure him freedom from speech fear in his life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness.

In using linguistic principles, Carrie Stegall guides her students to observe and imitate the natural and informal structure of the English language as used by teachers and other educated people of their acquaintances. Students develop simple and elementary sentence patterns that do no violence to the prevailing terminology of traditional grammar. Students do not turn to the rule books for the answers to questions and problems; they listen, always mindful of who is speaking and why before they accept a speech model.

The author concludes by indicating that linguistics has not given her all the answers, that she is forced to keep searching, that she is not comfortable, secure, and satisfied with her teaching anymore, but she prefers to advance by stepping on mistakes to standing still ignominiously.

Suggs, Lena Reddick. "Structural Grammar Versus Traditional Grammar in Influencing Writing," English Journal, L (March, 1961), 174-2.

Mrs. Suggs, a teacher at the Avon Park, Florida, High School, reports the results of an experiment which compared the influence on achievement on a writing test of the study of structural grammar and of traditional grammar by eleventh graders.

The author explains the design of the experiment. She used groups of pupils as nearly equal as possible in mental ability; kept the instructional program the same for both groups except the program in grammar during the thirteen weeks' experiment; and measured the writing progress with identical forms of a standardized writing test administered at the beginning and again at the end of the course.

Experimental group A was linguistically oriented and control group B was traditionally oriented. Group B learned many definitions and rules as required in traditional grammar. On the other hand, Group A proceeded not so much by definition as by illustration and identifications. Group B did much in tearing sentences apart while Group A constructed many sentences according to patterns.

Usage with rules and drills was studied by Group B; conversely, usage for group A came only in building correct sentences. The study of sentences in speech and in writing was done in conjunction with "intonation contours." Thus Group A proceeded from speech to writing. This relationship between speech and writing helped to remove the bugaboo in grammar; one student, according to the author, expressed a common belief derived from the linguistic approach to the language thus: "I believe the most important thing I learned about English is that English is spoken naturally. Most of the time we use correct English without realizing it."

Group A worked carefully on conjunctions, connectors, subordinates as they occur between sentence parts, while Group B stressed the usual definitions, rules, and diagramming. Group B learned rules for punctuation and then used drills while Group A did theirs through the speech approach, and learned to punctuate by recognition of the three features of intonation--pitch, stress, and juncture.

The author concludes that the results of this study lends definite proof that instruction in the English language according to the principles of linguistic science is superior to traditional grammar in its practical application to writing.

Thomas, Owen. "Generative Grammar: Toward Unification and Simplification," English Journal, LXII (February, 1962), 94-99.

Teachers concerned with the controversy involving traditional versus structural grammar may find a third alternative the last straw. Yet, Dr. Thomas of Indiana University department of English finds the grammatical theory of Noam Chomsky an approach to unification in grammar and a simplification of structural linguistics.

The author received permission from the administration of Indiana University to conduct an experiment with his thirty students in his 1961 summer course, "English Grammar for Teachers." By experimenting the author hoped to answer one question: "What do secondary school teacher--not professional linguists--think of generative grammar?"

Dr. Thomas structured the course as follows: "No text was assigned for general use during the first four weeks; initial lectures were devoted to the history of the language and to the development of grammatical studies during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; every Friday was given over to an informal clinic where the work of the preceding week was discussed." According to the author, "Initial discussion established the fact that there was no single traditional grammar." The second two weeks of the course was spent determining why this lack of agreement existed and time was also spent in consulting the initial chapters in the works of structural linguists--Charles C. Fries, James Sledd, and Harold Whitehall.

At this point most of the students felt that "They could not conscientiously teach traditional grammar because of inconsistencies." But they also felt that "Structural grammar was far too complex to be readily adapted to the needs of secondary school students."

Now was the time, the author felt, to introduce Chomsky's Syntactic Structures which the class used as a textbook for the remainder of the course.

The answer proved the validity of the question. "The students were convinced that certain deductions from the theories of Chomsky could be applied systematically to the teaching of grammar, not only in the secondary school but with equal effectiveness in the elementary school."

Thomas, Owen. "Grammatici Certant," English Journal, LXIII (May, 1963), 322-6.

Dr. Thomas of the department of English, Indiana University, Clarifies the assumptions and nature of the four grammars-- "traditional, historical, structural, and generative."

Traditional grammar goes back to the eighteenth century when such men as Lowth and Campbell tried to formulate definitive rules of syntax and usage. The author says that "Current traditional textbooks incorporate the same kind of rules."

Historical grammar also tried to explain some of the irregularities of English; however, the author declares that "Explanations were based on history rather than intuition." Historical grammarians developed the hypothesis of language families and successfully illustrated how certain word forms have gradually changed over the course of the centuries.

"Structural grammar," states the author, "probably began with Leonard Bloomfield's *Language* (1933)." Bloomfield noted that it was both possible and valuable to separate form or structure from meaning. According to the author, "The followers of Bloomfield--Fried, Gleason, Hill, Sledd, Hughes, and Whitehall--were not interested in making judgments about correct or incorrect usage; they sought to record and describe all usage ignoring "correctness" or "incorrectness."

Dr. Thomas explains that, "Generative grammar is a device for producing (or "generating") English sentences. Grammar has a 'tripartite arrangement'--phrase structure, transformational structure and morphophonemics. Phrase structure presents rigorous rules for combining morphemes into simple phrases. Transformational structure presents rules for combining phrases. Morphophonemics presents rules for forming words."

"Generative grammar combines precise definitions with rigorous rules that are based on an understanding of the history of English as well as on current, "socially-acceptable" usage. The rules of phrase structure produce the elemental phrases that are part of the core (or "kernel") of our language. Transformational structure rules are of two types: obligatory and optional transformations. If obligatory transformation rules are applied to the phrases produced by phrase structure rules and if the appropriate word form morphophonemic rule is applied, the result will be a grammatical English sentence."

Verbillion, June. "Is Linguistics the Key to Language Instruction?", Education Digest, XXIX (May, 1963), 42-5.

The author introduces the article with an anecdote: Recently a teacher friend of mine told me of an interview she had in applying for a new position: "Every where you go, its the same refrain: 'Have you had a course in linguistics?' And then another question: 'Can you teach it?'"

June Verbillion suggests that the linguistic buyer, with an eye to quality, may reject certain package deals, but make, in a discriminating manner, a few purchases. One of these purchases concerns the re-examination of the teacher's attitude toward change in language. The teacher of language arts must constantly realign his ideas regarding the form that language takes according to current usage.

According to the author, the weakness of the past lay not in its concern with how we ought to speak, but with its misplaced zeal in deciding arbitrarily what good English is and in its application of the law, not the spirit of standards of elegance, precision and good taste in language.

The writer concludes by declaring that the science of linguistics does have much of value to the classroom teacher.

Williams, Robert D. "Linguistics and Grammar," English Journal, XLVIII (October, 1959), 388-92.

Dr. Williams, a former student of Charles C. Fries, is a professor of English at Wisconsin State College.

In this article Professor Williams expresses some difficulties the English teacher has been operating under in the past and suggests the adoption of some basic linguistic principles to teaching grammar.

The rapid development of linguistics during the last thirty years is at last beginning to bear fruit, according to the author, in the form of new textbooks aimed at making the teaching of grammar "linguistically respectable."

The difficulty has been, not that teachers have tried to teach grammar for its own sake rather than for the sake of the child's sentence structure, but that much that has been taught in the name of grammar has been so arbitrary, so foreign to the English language, and so confusing that all the excitement of pursuit has been lost in the dizzy whirl of circular and overlapping definitions. The sentence was a mystery all right, but in a religious sense of the word, a mystery in which all questions and doubts were answered by dogma and ritual.

An English teacher must have an open mind and be ready to adopt some basic linguistic principles: (1) that the spoken language is primary, and that the written language is only an inadequate representation of the spoken language, (2) The second principle necessary for the orientation of the teacher of English to the work of the linguists is the principle of objective opposition. The linguist operates on the thesis that language is a system of significant contrasts which the speaker of the language has been trained to recognize and to reproduce. (3) The final principle, that of complexity, is a recognition that the signalling of English, like the signalling systems of all languages, is arbitrary, illogical, complex, and in many details so personal that it is highly improbable that any two people will ever agree perfectly on any analysis of it.

Wolfe, Don M. "Grammar and Linguistics: A Contrast in Realities," English Journal, LXIV (February, 1964), 73-8.

Dr. Wolfe, a well-known author of language textbooks, presents in this article an argument that traditional grammar is more useful in teaching than structural linguistics.

The author states that "Those who believe in structural linguistics for the average classroom must show how the new science can be used to improve both punctuation and style, the same tests that they justly believe should be applied to the teaching of grammar. I believe that traditional grammar has a hundred times more potential for improving punctuation and style than has structural linguistics."

In this article, Dr. Wolfe presents five sentence patterns and the classroom assignments based on them. The author declares that "By analyzing these five patterns and then writing sentences containing for each pattern the same sequence as the original, the student is required to use grammatical elements in a way that makes them memorable."

In defense of the value of traditional grammar, Dr. Wolfe states that "Despite weaknesses this grammar does function better than any other because it is simpler, it has fewer terms, it has a long history of pragmatic effectiveness."

In the remainder of the article, the author uses offensive tactics as his means of defense. He attacks Fries' The Structure of English as containing "highly rarefied nomenclature which only a few scholars can be expected to understand fully."

The author concludes his defense of traditional grammar, with the following reasoning: "The proliferate nomenclature of structural linguistics alone is sufficient reason why it cannot become an effective instrument of classroom teaching on the American scene."

Worthen, Richard. "Why Teach Descriptive Grammar?", California Journal of Secondary Education, XXXII (January, 1957), 47-51.

Richard Worthen, a high school teacher of English in California, presents four values to be found in the descriptive approach to teaching grammar.

The descriptive approach studies language inductively to discover the patterns and pressures that exist in the language today and is self-correcting in that categories are created as needed to cover any language pattern. One important value in the descriptive approach is that it encourages the student to look upon what he already knows about language with self-respect and to develop confidence that appropriateness in his own usage is something he can really achieve through an increasing mastery of the principles of descriptive grammar. A second value in studying descriptive grammar is an awareness of how marvelous and complex is that interlocking system that is his language. He begins to see that it is a hierarchy of patterns that bind phonemes into morphemes and morphemes into syntactical units. In short he has a better opportunity to envision the humanistic aspects of the study of language.

A third value to be found in the descriptive approach to grammar is that it points up the importance to students of breaking through structural limitations that many have accepted with a disturbing finality early in their schooling.

A fourth value in the descriptive approach to the study of language is that it introduces a scientific attitude toward the study of language.

Youmans, Peter N. "Practicing Linguistics," English Journal, LIV (April, 1965), 331-3.

The author, an English teacher at Pascack Valley High School, Hillsdale, New Jersey, presents some classroom exercises based upon elementary principles of linguistics.

When we set our students to exploring the system of language, we do so through investigating another language, Boinguage--devised by Professor Robert Allen of Columbia University. This is, of course, a variation of Professor Fries' idea of using nonsense words.

The author explains that Boinguage operates quite like English, using the same function words, but the form classes are all variations of one word--being. By presenting jumbled sentences in Boinguage, students rearrange the syntactical order and soon realize the value of word order in English. Students recognize the various signals of form classes beginning with nouns. In addition to word order or position, a noun is signaled by function words called determiners (articles in traditional grammar). Other signals of the noun are derivational suffixes. The inflection for plural is still another signal of nouns. Some time is spent on the -s pattern--the complementary distribution of $\{Z\}$, to be technical. For example, voiced consonants take the voiced form of $\{Z\}$, rather than the unvoiced. Compare pads and pats, phonemically /pædz/ and /pæts/. Here is system and regularity.

After studying the form classes, students move to sentence patterns (kernels) and transformations using material and exercises in Roberts' English Sentences.

The author concludes that practice is the best of all instructors, and that practicing linguistics seems promising.

Zidonis, Frank J. "Generative Grammar: A Report on Research," English Journal, LXV (May, 1965), 405-9.

This article reports the results of a two year experiment supported by a grant from the United States Office of Education. The experiment concerned the teaching of generative grammar to ninth and tenth graders. The experiment was conducted by Professor Zidonis of Ohio State University and a colleague, Professor Donald R. Bateman.

The author presents five generalizations as a result of this experiment: "(1) High school students can learn the principles of generative grammar relatively easily because of its consistency, specificity, and relevance to the production of well-formed sentences; (2) A knowledge of generative grammar enables pupils to increase significantly the proportion of well-formed sentences they write; (3) Statistical analysis suggests, but does not prove, that there is a relation between a knowledge of generative grammar and an ability to produce well-formed sentences of greater structural complexity; (4) When rigorous criteria of well-formedness were applied in the analysis of writing samples, almost half of the sentences written by the ninth graders were judged to be mal-formed; (5) A knowledge of generative grammar can enable students to reduce the occurrence of errors in their writing."

The author concludes the article by stating that "Direct empirical verification of the psychological reality of generative grammar theory and the suggestive evidence provided by the significantly greater gains scores in this study indicate that generative theory currently offers a fruitful first step in the teaching of composition."

ANALYSIS-SECTION II

Bloch, Bernard, and Trager, George L. Outline of Linguistic Analysis. Baltimore: Waverly Press, 1942.

In the preface the authors state that the aim of this booklet is to present in brief summary the techniques of analysis which are necessary for learning a foreign language (or English which is foreign to natives) by the method of working with native speakers and arriving inductively at the grammatical system of their language. The authors feel that the material will be useful to the professional teacher of languages in high school as an introduction to linguistic method and to the scientific attitude toward language.

Chapter one, an introductory chapter on the importance of language, nature of language, the learning process and linguistic science, has special significance for a high school English teacher who is contemplating teaching the new grammar.

Initially, language is defined as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates. The primacy of oral communication is stressed quite early in the chapter. The authors indicate that written communication is derived entirely from spoken language and is effective only in so far as it reflects this. The authors use a paragraph from Leonard Bloomfield's Studies in the History of Culture to highlight the importance of language in our society.

Language, as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols, reflects four important aspects of its nature: (1) language is a system, (2) language is a system of symbols, (3) the symbols which constitute a language are vocal symbols, and (4) the linguistic symbols are arbitrary. Thus, the grammar of a language is simply an orderly description of the way people in a given society talk--of the sounds that people utter in various situations and of the acts which accompany or follow the sounds.

The process of acquiring a language, whether in infancy or in later life, is always essentially the same. One must have a source of information; one must learn to recognize and to reproduce the utterances provided by that source; and one must analyze and classify the utterances one has learned. In a sense, the authors indicate that it is easier for a child to learn a language because the child, having no fixed speech habits, imitates speakers about him without prejudice. An adult, however, is often inhibited from freely imitating his informant because he has already acquired a set of speech habits.

Concerning linguistic science, the authors make it plain that a linguist is not necessarily a polyglot. The linguist is a scientist whose subject matter is language, and his task is to analyze and classify the facts of speech,

Bloch, Bernard, and Trager, George L. Outline of Linguistic Analysis. Baltimore: Waverly Press, 1942. (continued) discusses each of the articulators (tongue and lips), while mentioning typical movements and positions and typical points of articulation. Sounds articulated by the lower lip are called labial; they may be bilabial (against the upper lip) or labio-dental (against the upper teeth). Sounds articulated by the apex (tip) of the tongue are called apical. Consonants formed with the front of the tongue in contact with the hard palate are called frontal. Consonants formed by the back of the tongue in contact with the velum are called dorsal or velar.

These sounds of speech are represented on paper by phonetic symbols. The authors caution that the value of a phonetic symbol is a group or class of sounds, containing an indefinite number of more or less noticeably different members; therefore the authors' phonetic symbols in the booklet are intended to represent categories of sound rather than individual sounds.

However, a purely phonetic description of a language makes it impossible to distinguish the significant features of the vocabulary and the grammar of a language. As the authors point out, gross phonetic facts are mostly an illusion because of the human variable. One can never be sure that phonetic transcription reflects every detail of the actual utterances.

Therefore, for practical reasons, a phonemic study of the language is preferable to a purely phonetic description. Chapter three of the booklet begins with an objective discussion of the practical value of phonemics over phonetics, continues with the authors' technique for phonemic analysis which includes both segmental and suprasegmental phonemes. The authors discuss the principle of complementary distribution and consider the phonemic structure of language with examples of structural sets in English. The phonemic symbols are contrasted with phonetic symbols followed by a lengthy presentation of the phonemes of English; however the authors conclude the chapter in a non-scientific frame of mind by implying that they do not have enough data to present an accurate formulation of the phonemic structure of English.

Morphology logically follows phonemics. Chapter four concerns morphology--the structure of words in a language. The authors submit that meaning is necessary to the understanding of the grammar of a language, but they certainly try to evade the issue by setting up makeshift definitions so as to operate with meaningful forms-free and bound. The chapter discusses morphological construction, paradigms, morphological processes, parts of speech, treatment of derivatives, treatment of affixes, compound words, immediate constituents, and meaning and form.

Bloch, Bernard, and Trager, George L. Outline of Linguistic Analysis. Baltimore: Waverly Press, 1942. (continued)

The last chapter in the booklet presents the analysis of constructions in a language--syntax. The authors arbitrarily set up definitions of syntactic constructions by taking account of the suprasegmental phonemes of juncture and intonation. Constituent analysis is used to discuss syntactical orders. Meaning is brought into the discussion again in relation to the ordering of the constituents indicating the fact that the structural linguist (at least Bloch and Trager) cannot divorce himself entirely from the lexicon of a language.

Although much of the material in this booklet is now outmoded, it does offer a complete overview of structural linguistics with a minimum of effort. An English teacher interested in the new grammar might profitably start with this outline.

Burton, Dwight L, and Simmons, John S. (editors) Teaching English in Today's High Schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965.

This book is a volume of readings in the teaching of secondary English today.

The editors feel that there is a new English just as there is a new mathematics or new biology, and they have selected this collection of essays in order to represent the new English as it pertains to the junior and senior high school.

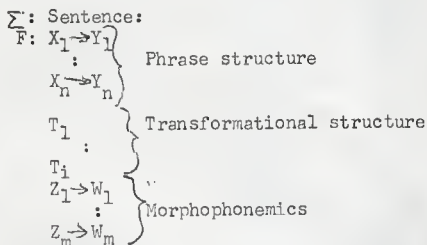
Part III of this volume reflects the progress in study of the English language, as well as turmoil. The new English means a broadening of the nature of English language study in the schools as well as a clarification of assumptions underlining the study of grammar, with which language study in the past has been often equated. This section reflects new programs which feature the study of the English language not only as a tool for improved writing and speaking, but as a valuable content in itself.

The following articles and essays in Part III of this volume offer a valuable fund of knowledge concerning the new grammar: "New Concepts and Content for the English Curriculum," by Priscilla Tyler; "Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties of English," by Charles V. Hartung; "Doctrines of English Usage," by Cleveland A. Thomas; "Dictionaries and the English Language," by Albert H. Marckwardt; "Grammatici Certant," by Owen Thomas; "The Relation of Linguistics to the Teaching of English," by Paul Roberts; "Grammar and Linguistics: A Contrast in Realities," by Don M. Wolfe; "Can Traditional Grammar Be Modernized?", by David A. Conlin; "Generative Grammar: Toward Unification and Simplification," by Owen Thomas; and "A Plea for Pluralism," by James Sledd.

Also included in this volume are articles on teaching literature, teaching written and oral composition, planning instruction in English, and a section which presents an overview of the situation in English today.

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1957.

Initially, Chomsky refers to the "natural tripartite arrangement of grammars." He calls these three parts: (1) "phrase structure," (2) "transformational structure," and (3) "morphophonemics." "Corresponding to the level of phrase structure, a grammar has a sequence of rules of the form $X \rightarrow Y$, and corresponding to lower levels it has a sequence of morphophonemic rules of the same basic form. Linking these two sequences, it has a sequence of transformational rules." Thus the grammar would look something like this:



"To produce a sentence from such a grammar we construct an extended derivation beginning with Sentence. Running through the rules of F we construct a terminal string that will be a sequence of morphemes, though not necessarily in the correct order. We then run through the sequence of transformations T_1, \dots, T_i , applying each obligatory one and perhaps certain optional ones. These transformations may rearrange strings or may add or delete morphemes. As a result they yield a string of words. We then run through the morphophonemic rules, thereby converting this string of words into a string of phonemes. The phrase structure segment of the grammar will include such rules as those of (13), (17) and (28). The transformational part will include such rules as (26), (29) and (34), formulated properly in the terms that must be developed in a full-scale theory of transformations. The morphophonemic part will include such rules as (19)."

The "phrase structure" part of generative grammar deals with the most elemental forms of language; it incorporates some of the descriptions of morphemes according to structural grammar and it presents rigorous rules for combining morphemes into simple phrases. For example, according to Part I of generative grammar, a "noun phrase" consists of a "determiner" (i.e., a word like "the," "my," "I," etc.) plus a "noun," plus a "morpheme" which indicates whether the noun is singular or plural. (On the phrase structure level, the noun phrase incorporates no adjectives.) Chomsky presents a similar description of a verb phrase.

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1957.
(continued)

Phrase Structure Rules:

- "(13) (i) Sentence \longrightarrow NP + VP
(ii) NP \longrightarrow T + N
(iii) VP \longrightarrow Verb + NP
(iv) T \longrightarrow the
(v) N \longrightarrow man, ball, etc.
(vi) verb \longrightarrow hit, took, etc."

Interpretation of rules 13 (i)--(vi): $x \rightarrow y$ = "rewrite x as y".
Only a single element can be rewritten in any single rule.

"Suppose that we interpret each rule $X \rightarrow Y$ of (13) as the instruction "rewrite X as Y". We shall call (14) a derivation of the sentence "the man hit the ball." where the numbers at the right of each line of the derivation refer to the rule of the "grammar" (13) used in constructing that line from the preceding line."

- "(14) Sentence
NP + VP (i)
T + N + VP (ii)
T + N + verb + NP (iii)
the + N + verb + NP (iv)
the + man + verb + NP (v)
the + man + hit + NP (vi)
the + man + hit + T + NP (ii)
the + man + hit + the + NP (iv)
the + man + hit + the + ball (v)"

"One generalization of (13) is clearly necessary. We must be able to limit application of a rule to a certain context. This T can be rewritten a if the following noun is singular, but not if it is plural; similarly, verb can be rewritten "hits" if the preceding noun is man, but not if it is men. In general, if we wish to limit the rewriting of X as Y to the context Z-W, we can state in the grammar the rule (16) $Z + X + W \longrightarrow Z + Y + W$. For example, in the case of singular and plural verbs, instead of having verb \rightarrow hits as an additional rule of (13), we should have (17) $NP_{\text{sing}} + \text{verb} \rightarrow NP_{\text{sing}} + \text{hits}$ indicating that verb is rewritten hits only in the context NP_{sing} ."

Thus in a more complete grammar, (13 ii) might be replaced by a set of rules that includes the following:

$$NP \rightarrow \begin{cases} NP_{\text{sing}} \\ NP_{\text{pl}} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} NP_{\text{sing}} &\longrightarrow T + N + \emptyset \quad (+ \text{Prepositional Phrase}) \\ NP_{\text{pl}} &\longrightarrow T + N + S \quad (+ \text{Prepositional Phrase}) \end{aligned}$$

Where S is the morpheme which is singular for verbs and plural for nouns ("comes," "boys"), and \emptyset is the morpheme which is singular for nouns and plural for verbs ("boy," "come").

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1957.
(continued)

"In the grammar (13) we gave only one way of analyzing the element Verb, namely, as hit (cf. (13 vi)). But even with the verbal root fixed (let us say, as take), there are many other forms that this element can assume, e.g., takes, has + taken, will + take, has + been + taken, is + being + taken, etc. We can state the occurrence of these auxiliaries in declarative sentences by adding to the grammar (13) the following rules:"

- (28) (i) Verb \rightarrow Aux + V
 (ii) V \rightarrow hit, take, walk, read, etc.
 (iii) Aux \rightarrow C(M) (have + en) (be + ing) (be + en)
 (iv) M \rightarrow will, can, may, shall, must
- (29) (i) C \rightarrow $\begin{cases} S \text{ in the context } NP_{sing} \\ \emptyset \text{ in the context } NP_{e^0} \\ \text{past} \end{cases}$
 (ii) Let Af stand for any of the affixes past, S, \emptyset , en, ing.
 Let v stand for any M or V, or have or be (i.e., for any non-affix in the phrase Verb). Then:
 Af + v \rightarrow v + Af #, where # is interpreted as word boundary.
 (iii) Replace + by # except in the context v-Af.
 Insert # initially and finally.

Here is an example of the application of rules (28) (i)-(iv), (29) (i) - (iii). "Construct a derivation in the style of (14), omitting the initial steps."

- (30) the + man + verb + the + book
 the + man + Aux + V + the + book
 the + man + Aux + read + the + book
 the + man + C + have + en + be + ing + read + the + book
 (select the elements C, have + en and be + ing)
 the + man + S + have + en + be + ing + read + the + book
 the + man + have + S#be + en#read + ing#the + book
 #the#man#have + S#be + en#read + ing#the#book#

The morphophonemic rules (19), etc., will convert the last line of this derivation into:

- (31) the man has been reading the book

"We can now describe more generally the form of grammar associated with the theory of linguistic structure based upon constituent analysis. Each such grammar is defined by a finite set Σ of initial strings and a finite set F of 'instruction formulas' of the form $X \rightarrow Y$ interpreted: 'rewrite X as Y.' Though X need not be a single symbol, only a single symbol of X can be rewritten in forming Y. In the grammar (13), the only member of the set Σ of initial strings was the single symbol Sentence, and F consisted of the rules (i)-(vi); but we might want to extend Σ to include, for example, Declarative Sentence,

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1957.
(continued)

Interrogative Sentence, as additional symbol. Given the grammar $\langle \Sigma, \bar{F} \rangle$, we define a derivation as a finite set of strings, beginning with an initial string of Σ , and with each string in the sequence being derived from the preceding string by application of one of the instruction formulas of \bar{F} . Thus (14) is a derivation, and the five-termed sequence of strings consisting of the first five lines of (14) is also a derivation. Certain derivations are terminated derivations, in the sense that their final string cannot be rewritten any further by the rules \bar{F} . Thus (14) is a terminated derivation. If a string is the last line of a terminated derivation, we say that it is a terminal string. Thus the + man + hit + the + ball is a terminal string from the grammar (13). A set of strings is called a terminal language if it is the set of terminal strings for some grammar $\langle \Sigma, \bar{F} \rangle$. Given a terminal language and its grammar, we can reconstruct the phrase structure of each sentence of the language."

Part II of generative grammar presents rigorous rules for combining phrases. We know that when we combine a subject and a predicate, the verb must agree with its subject in "number and person." The rules which guarantees such agreement is included in Part II of generative grammar. Part II also contains rules for adding adjectives to noun phrases, for transforming a sentence from the active to the passive voice, and other similar rules. Part II, then, presents (in the abbreviated notation system also used in symbolic logic) explanations of grammatical relationships, and the goal of Part II is similar to the most important goal of traditional grammar. For example, traditional grammar seeks to explain the relationship between active and passive voices; Chomsky's "passive transformation" has the same goal, but it differs from the traditional explanation chiefly by being more rigorous (and for this reason the explanation is syntactic, i.e., it avoids all reference to meaning).

Finally, Part III of generative grammar incorporates additional developments of structural grammar (notably, those concerned with phonemics) as well as the historical discoveries of historical grammar. Thus, the rule which ways "man plus the plural morpheme equals men" would be included in Part III, as would the rules which indicate the phonetic pronunciation of "man" and "men" (similar to the pronunciations found in dictionaries but presented according to the conventions of the International Phonetic Alphabet).

According to generative grammar, all sentences in English are either "kernel" sentences or are developed ("generated") from kernel sentences by optional-but-invariable-transformations. Using the rules of Part I,

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton and Co, 1957.
(continued)

of generative grammar, one can produce the elemental phrases that are a part of the core (or "kernel") of our language. Part II contains two types of rules: "obligatory transformations and optional transformations." Agreement between subject and verb is obligatory; the inclusion of such words as adjectives or negatives is optional. If we apply the obligatory transformations of Part II to the phrases produced in Part I, and then if we apply the appropriate word-form rules of Part III, the result will be a grammatical English sentence; and since we apply only obligatory transformations, the sentence will be a "kernel" sentence. A kernel sentence is simple, active, declarative, with no complex noun or verb phrases (i.e., no adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, etc.).

Therefore, the sentence, "The boy is eating the cake" is a kernel sentence, and the following sentences are all transforms of the kernel:

1. The tall boy is eating the cake.
2. Is the boy eating the cake?
3. The boy isn't eating the cake
4. What is the boy eating?
5. The cake is being eaten by the boy

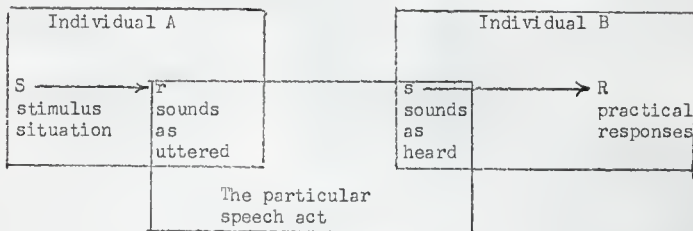
Generative grammar is not complete. Generative grammar is only part of the study of language.

Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952.

In the introduction of this textbook, Fries explains that the point of view is descriptive and the purpose is to provide the fundamental descriptive analysis upon which a practical textbook can be built. Fries' study presents an analysis of a large body of actual English speech observed and recorded in a university community. Actually, it was fifty hours of mechanically recorded conversations on a great range of topics. Because the book is addressed not to the specialist in linguistic analysis, but to the educated lay reader, I feel that this text should have a special reference nook for teachers in general.

The author begins his analysis of the data in chapter two by asking the question, What is a sentence? Fries discredits the traditional definition, surveys the innovations over the years, and concludes that the search for definite quantitative limitations of content for the sentence unit has not produced acceptable and workable criteria. Fries, in accepting Bloomfield's definition: "Each sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form.", proceeds to an assumption that a sentence (the particular unit of language that is the object of this investigation) is a single free utterance, minimum or expanded; that it is "free" in a sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device. Fries' study, then, is directed toward the identification and classification of the single free utterances that appear in his data.

Proceeding with a workable definition of a sentence, the author asks another question in chapter three--What are the kinds of sentences? The traditional classification is discarded by the author in favor of a two-step procedure to arrive at a body of single free utterances for examination and classification. The basis of this procedure is made clear by the use of a general formula to represent the function of language:



Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. (continued)

Using this formula, Fries classifies three major groups of utterances in the recorded material: (1) Those that were immediately and regularly followed by "oral" responses only, (2) Those that were immediately followed by "action" responses, and (3) Those that were accompanied by very brief oral signals of attention interjected at irregular intervals but not interrupting the span of talk.

Another question, Should sentence analysis be based on meaning or form?, is the framework for chapter four. The author discards the traditional method based on meaning as being scientifically inept. Fries proceeds with the assumption that the grammar of a language consists of devices that signal structural meanings, that these formal signals operate in a system, and that they have signalling significance only as they are parts of patterns in a structural whole. In his attempt to describe the contrastive patterns of the system through which the structural meanings of English are signalled, Fries found that the basic items to be distinguished are certain large form-classes of words. He concluded that the description of the patterns of devices to signal structural meanings would, therefore, be in terms of the selection of these large form-classes or parts of speech and the formal arrangements in which they occur.

Fries' next step was to categorize these form-classes or parts of speech. The author declares that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern; it cannot be defined by means of a simple statement; thus he discards the traditional definitions of the parts of speech. Again he proceeds with assumptions: (1) All words that could occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English free utterances must belong to the same part of speech; and (2) If the minimum free utterances were used as test frames, he could find all the words from the recorded material that would fit into each significant position without a change of the structural meaning. The author used three test frames-sentences A, B, and C. Class 1 words were those that could be substituted for the word "concert" in test frame A: "The concert was good (always)," or adjusted frame A: "(The) _____ is/was good," or "(The) _____ -s is/was good." By this process of substitution, Fries arrives at four classes of words which roughly correlate with the traditional noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. I would point out that the author does not always adhere to the initial test frames A, B, and C in this process of substitution.

After categorizing the four form-classes, Fries proceeds with the assumption that the remainder of the words in the single free utterances must be function words, i.e. they function as markers for the form-class words. Using the

Fries, Charles. C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. (continued)
 same test frames and the same process of substitution,
 the author isolates fifteen groups of function words:

Group A are called "determiners."

A 1 2 3

Frame A: The concert was good

Group B words all go with Class 2 words and serve as markers of Class 2 words.

A 1 B 2 3

Frame A: The concert may be good

Group C words are negatives.

A 1 B C 2 3

Frame A: The concert may not be good

Group D A 1 B C 2 D 3 4

Frame A: The concert may not be very good then

Group E A 1 E A 1 2 E 2

Frame A: The concerts and the lectures are and were

3 E 3 4 E 4

interesting and profitable now and earlier

Group F A 1 F A 1 2 F A 1

Frame A: The concerts at the school are at the top

Group G G A 1 2 A 1 4

Frame A: Do the boys do their work promptly

Group H H 2 A 1 F A 1

Frame A: There is a man at the door

Group I I 2 A 1 2

Frame A: When was the concert good

Group J A 1 2 3 J A 3 1 2

Frame A: The orchestra was good after the new director came

Group K (well, oh, now, why) occur very frequently at the beginnings of "response" utterance units.

Group L (yes and no) have a meaning of affirmation and negation which is usually supported by the utterance they introduce.

Group M (look, say, listen) are attention-getting signals.

Group N (one word, please) occurs with request sentences.

Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. (continued)
 Group 0 (lets) operates as a device which makes a request sentence into a request or proposal that includes the speaker.

In chapter seven, the author makes a comparative survey of all the words of his lists which reveals formal identifying contrasts for Class 1, 2, 3, and 4 words.

Fries' structural patterns of sentences in chapter eight are described in terms of the selection of the parts of speech set forth in preceding chapters and of the distinctive formal arrangements of these parts of speech. The author presents the following formulas for basic contrastive patterns for three kinds of sentences in Modern English:

1. Class 1 \leftarrow ----- \rightarrow Class 2 = statement
2. Class 2 \leftarrow ----- \rightarrow Class 1 = question
3. Class 2 (Class 1) = request

In the preceding formulas \leftarrow ----- \rightarrow means that a Class 1 word and a Class 2 word are tied by a certain correspondence or concordance of forms.

In chapter nine, Fries explains the structural meanings of "subjects," and "objects." The author discards the lexical meaning of subject by explaining that "subject" is a formal linguistic structural matter; it is a particular construction for a Class 1 word. In the basic sentence patterns Class 1 \leftarrow ----- \rightarrow Class 2 and Class 2 \leftarrow ----- \rightarrow Class 1, the "subject" is simply the Class 1 word (or words) that is tied with a Class 2 word to form the basic pattern of the sentence. The "object" is a technical name for a structure in which a Class 1 word enters. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting formal arrangements, not by meaning. These structures are signals by which meanings are received and conveyed. Fries seems to be semantically "nit-picking" in this chapter.

Chapter Ten presents "modification" as a structure in which each of the four parts of speech and certain of the function words, can serve as the head or nucleus. It is a structure of connection, but a connection of a particular kind. The five structures of modification as presented by the author:

- I. Modifiers with a Class 1 word as head.
- II. Modifiers with a Class 2 word as head.
- III. Modifiers with a Class 3 word as head.
- IV. Modifiers with a Class 4 word as head.
- V. Modifiers with certain function words as heads.

In each of the five types of head words, this chapter deals with the structures of modification, and, second, with the meanings of these structures.

... of the five types of head words, this chapter deals with the structures of modification, and, second, with the meanings of these structures.

Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. (continued)

In chapter eleven, Fries is concerned with "sequence" and "included" sentences. In his data the author found sequences of two or more free utterances that made up some of the "utterance units"-especially those that began conversations. Some of these utterance units represent a rather considerable stretch of continuous discourse on the part of one speaker. In these, all the single free utterances or sentences after the one at the beginning, constitute "sequence" sentences. In general, the forms of these sequence sentences differed from those that stood first in a "situation" utterance unit only in the fact that the sequence sentences contained certain signals that tied them to preceding utterances. The forms that thus tie following sentences in the same utterance unit to the sentences that precede them are called "sequence" signals. These sequence signals consist of a variety of linguistic forms-subjects for Class 1 words, determiners, etc. These sequence signals all look back to a preceding sentence; they are retrospective.

In addition to these devices that signal a connection between free sentence units there are in English the function words (Group J) and formal word-order arrangements by which word groups having the formal characteristics of free sentence units are included in larger sentences. Whenever words of this group appear at the beginning of an utterance with the form classes and arrangement of a statement, these words, acting as function words, signal the structural fact that the unit they introduce is to be included, with the one immediately following, in a larger single sentence unit.

In chapter twelve, the author explains that in present day English, the word-order arrangements of the various form-classes furnish many of the significant contrasts which constitute our structural signals. However, Fries explains, in order to grasp a word-order arrangement it was first necessary to recognize the various form classes; then the function words must be recognized and identified with their particular structural signals. In English such a function word as *at* or *in* with a Class 1 word following will constitute a word group, and that on one layer the group as a whole forms a single constituent.

This introductory explanation leads into Fries' syntactical device of immediate constituent analysis which, the author explains, is a ten-step procedure for the analysis of present-day English sentences which reveals the immediate constituents of each structure in its proper structural layer and thus the relation of structure to structure.

Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. (continued)

The last chapter of the textbook presents some practical applications of the structural method. The author claims five chief uses and values of a descriptive analysis of the structure of English: (1) language learning, (2) structural ambiguities, (3) punctuation, (4) structural resources, and (5) total meaning. Apart from these, the author explains that the chief value of a systematic analysis and description of the signals of structural meaning in English is insight into the way our language works, and, through English, into the nature and functioning of human languages.

This is a classic work in morphology and syntax which every English teacher should read and contrast with a traditional textbook. The contrastive comparison should prove that scientific methodology can be applied to the English language.

Francis, W. Nelson. The Structure of American English. New York: Ronald Press, 1958.

In chapter one, the author indicates that language is a social rather than biological aspect of life. Francis defines language as an arbitrary system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of humans as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society.

The author presents a summary of the subdivisions of linguistics:

- I. Fields of linguistics
 - A. Language families: Indo-European, Semitic, etc.
 - B. Individual languages: French, English, etc.
 - C. Subdivisions of languages: Canadian French, American English, etc.
- II. Aspects of linguistics
 - A. Synchronic (or descriptive)
 - B. Diachronic (or historical)
 - C. Comparative
 - D. Structural
- III. Branches of linguistics
 - A. Four main branches of structural linguistics
 - 1. Phonetics
 - 2. Phonemics
 - 3. Morphemics
 - 4. Grammar
 - a. Morphology
 - b. Syntax
 - B. Four kinds of applied linguistics
 - 1. Semantics
 - 2. Graphics
 - 3. Linguistic geography
 - 4. Lexicography

Chapter two, phonetics, discusses the three divisions of phonetics: articulatory, auditory, and acoustic; the organs of speech; the three main sounds of speech: fricatives, stops, and sonorants; presents a consonant chart with thirty-two common and fourteen specific consonants; a vowel chart with eighteen vowels presented in a quadrangular diagram. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the use of juncture and pitch in connected transcription.

Chapter three on phonemics begins with a definition of phonemics as a group of one or more phone-types that are phonetically similar and in complementary distribution or in free variation. The process of formulating phonemic structure of a language consists of applying the tests of phonetic similarity, complementary distribution and free variation. The American English phonemic system consists of twenty-four consonants, nine vowels, four stresses, four pitches, and four junctures.

Chapter four follows logically with morphemics. Francis defines morphemes as the smallest units of meaning in a language. He illustrates the concept of morphemes with examples from English and then discusses the classification of morphemes. He states that a morpheme is a group of related forms that have a common meaning.

Marckwardt, Albert H. Introduction to the English Language.
New York: Oxford University Press, 1942.

This text, although it presents little original contribution to the total linguistic knowledge, does contain sufficient amount of exercise material to aid the student and/or teacher in grasping linguistic principles. To a greater extent than most treatments of phonology or morphology, this book is based upon induction as the fundamental activity in the learning process, particularly in connection with the acquisition of languages and the formation of linguistic concepts. Every section devoted to a discussion of some particular topic is followed by a series of study questions which help to reinforce and extend the conclusions which have just been presented. By this process, the student is encouraged to observe the language about him.

Chapter One, "The Sounds of English," is introduced with an explanation of the scientific process in relation to language--observation, classification, and conclusions. The International Phonetic Alphabet is presented as a tool to record the sounds of a language. The author cites certain limitations of the phonetic alphabet--the factors of stress, pitch, and pause and the importance which they play in language.

Chapter One continues with a discussion of the dynamics of speech sound which includes diagrams of the speech organs. Speech sounds are classified as voiceless or voiced in terms of the action of the larynx, oral and nasal, in terms of where the breath stream ultimately escapes. Consonants are classified in terms of voiced-voiceless, oral-nasal, articulators, and points of articulation. Stops or plosives, fricatives, affricates, and glides are discussed. Vowels are classified according to configuration of jaw, tongue, and lips. The chapter concludes with stress upon the concept of the dictionary as a record of pronunciations which exist, rather than as a dictator of what pronunciation should be.

Continuing the scientific approach which was outlined in Chapter One, Chapter Two is launched with a question of the function of language. There follows a close analysis of Edward Sapir's definition of language as "a purley human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols." The author presents a concept of grammar which includes morphology and syntax. Since most languages indicate changes in meaning by altering the outward form of words or sentences, either meaning or form may be used as a starting point in the determination of classes. Still another scheme of

Francis, W. Nelson. The Structure of American English. New York: Ronald Press, 1958. (continued)

defines a morph as a combination of phones that has meaning and which cannot be sub-divided into smaller meaningful units. An allomorph is a class of morphs which are phonemically and semantically identical. And finally, a morpheme is a group of allomorphs that are semantically similar and in complementary distribution. A paradigm is a system of morphemic variations which correspond to a parallel system of variations in environment. A form-class is a set of linguistic forms which fits into a given position in a paradigm. English paradigms can be described in terms of a stem, consisting of or containing a base and various affixes.

Chapter five on parts of speech begins with the characteristics of the work of the structural grammarian: (1) attention to structure, (2) study of the spoken language, (3) use of the inductive method, and (4) working from form to meaning. According to the author, there are five signals of syntactic structures: (1) word order, (2) prosodic pattern, (3) function words, (4) inflections, and (5) derivational contrasts. The parts of speech described in this chapter are noun, verb, adjective, and adverb.

Four basic types of syntactic structures are considered in chapter six. They are structures of modification, of predication, of complementation, and of coordination. Immediate constituent analysis is used to diagrammatically represent these structures.

In chapter seven, a sentence is defined as that much of the uninterrupted utterance of a single speaker as is included either between the beginning of the utterance and the pause which ends a sentence final contour or between two such pauses. Sentences are classified as situation-sentences, response-sentences, and sequence-sentences.

Chapter 8 considers graphics and begins with a definition of writing as the systematic visible and permanent representation of the auditory and transient phenomena of speech. The author explains the structure of our writing system. It is a segmented kind of structure with two levels of organization: (1) letters or characters, and (2) groups or words.

A chapter on dialects of American English, written by Raven I. McDavid, presents dialect differences and their causes, the study of linguistic geography, forces underlying dialect distribution in America, principal dialect areas of the United States, the influence of foreign-language settlements, and class dialects. McDavid is well known in his particular field, and this chapter is thorough.

The last chapter in the textbook presents some of the practical values of linguistics to the English teacher: in learning to talk, to read, and to write; linguistics and rhetoric, and linguistics and literature.

Marckwardt, Albert H. Introduction to the English Language.

New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. (continued)

classification proceeds according to function or use in the sentence. The author uses the traditional scheme with its familiar terminology of noun, adjective, verb, and so on. In considering the parts of speech, the author proceeds from form to meaning. In connection with each part of speech the author considers the following three questions: (1) What formal modification (i.e. of inflection or of position) does this class of word under go? (2) What functional or grammatical categories are indicated by such variations in form? (3) What modifications in meaning are suggested by these grammatical functions? Next, the author describes a sentence as that which consists of a number of standardized patterns that have been agreed upon by the users of a language, and that for English, a noun-verb or actor-action sequence is the simplest concrete form of such a pattern, liable to all sorts of extension and amplification. The author recognizes the descriptive relationships of the suprasegmentals to the sentence, although he does not incorporate them into his analysis. Next, a section on sentence analysis is put together very superficially. The clause and phrase is discussed in relation to expanded patterns of the simple sentence--compound, complex, and compound-complex. The chapter on grammar concludes with a short section on punctuation. It is implied that punctuation and phonology are related, but no attempt is made to describe this relationship.

Chapter Three considers those types of change or development in meaning which over the centuries have affected a considerable portion of English vocabulary. Four of the most important of these types of changes are (a) specialization, (b) generalization, (c) pejoration, and (d) amelioration. The author gives examples of respective types of changes and discusses some of the elements which play a part in change. Many linguistic scientists consider meaning beyond their sphere of interest. There are very good sections in this chapter on etymology; loan words, Latin, Greek, and French; Scandinavian influence; and Celtic borrowings.

The last three chapters present a comprehensive history of English. The author begins his examination of earlier English with the period most like our own, Early Modern English, following which, he presents Middle English and Old English. The author chooses the language of Shakespeare as representative of the Early Modern Period with specimen selections from Shakespeare's plays chosen to represent the speech of various social levels. Also, as the author deals

Marckwardt, Albert H. Introduction to the English Language.

New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. (continued)

with the language of each period, he considers the sounds, and the inflections and syntax of the various parts of speech.

In conclusion, the author notes that it is scarcely possible for every speaker of English to make of himself a linguistic scientist, or to engage in first hand research either into the extensive fields of present-day usage or into the historical ramifications every time he wants to decide a simple question of syntax or of pronunciation. What he can do, however, is to discover for himself the results of the research of others, such results as are contained in the authoritative dictionaries and the competent grammars of the English language.

In conclusion, I note that the historical grammar is the strongest part of this book. The section on morphology is especially weak in light of recent descriptive linguistic developments.

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956.

English sentence patterns are made up of several different features working together in complicated ways. On one level we have sounds--vowels and consonants. There are thirty-three of them, nine vowels and twenty-four consonants, and when we write, we try to represent these sounds with the twenty-six letters of the alphabet. English spelling doesn't represent English sounds very well, but insofar as the letters stand for anything they stand for sounds.

the vowels and consonants combine to form words, and the words fall into different groups according to their form and the positions they occupy in patterns. We have two main kinds of word groups: form classes and structure groups. The great bulk of the words in our vocabularies pattern as members of the form classes. Only a couple of hundred are distributed in the structure groups.

Certain arrangements of the form classes give us the half dozen or so basic sentence patterns. These basic patterns can all be expanded through modification. Any noun may expand into a noun cluster, any verb into a verb cluster. Adjectives and adverbs can be the nuclei of adjective and adverb clusters.

A sentence pattern--whether simple or expanded--can be made part of another pattern through the operation of a subordinator. Two patterns can be combined by a conjunction or a sentence connector. It is in this process of modification and combination that the structure words play their part in the patterns of English.

Looking through the structure of English sentences, we see various units that cannot be linked up with any single class of words or single kind of structure. These we call function units, and we have noticed such function units as subjects, objects, noun modifiers, verb modifiers, sentence modifiers. These are not word classes because all kinds of words occur in them. A subject is not often a noun or a pronoun, but it might also be a verb or verb cluster or an adjective or an S-group or even a P-group. But even though function units are not word classes, they are always clearly marked in a clear sentence. We always know whether a word is a subject or a linking-verb complement or a modifier or something else.

The whole complex of the English sentence is composed of pairs of structures. These we have called pattern parts. As a whole the sentence has two pattern parts, each working as a unit against the other. Each of these parts has two parts, each of these two, and so on down to the word unit. When we cut a sentence into its pattern parts, we are constantly separating out a few

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956. (continued)
frequently recurring structures: noun clusters, verb clusters, P-groups, and S-groups. Even very complicated sentences are seen to consist of a few familiar patterns repeated and combined in different ways.

Over the whole business lies intonation: pitch, stress, and juncture. These play a very important part in English patterns. They mark out sentences, tie pattern parts together, separate word classes sometimes, signal sentence modifiers, and keep the whole course of the pattern straight. In writing, intonation is reflected through punctuation.

Roberts divides English into four form classes which nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They are form classes because they are signaled by features of form, mostly suffixes and prefixes. The obvious form feature of nouns, which he symbolizes in his sentence patterns as a (1), is the plural ending. The regular ending is /s/, /z/, or /iz/, depending on the sound structure of the singular form.

The central form feature of the verb (2) class is the past tense form. Again we have one regular form and several irregular forms. The regular past tense form is the set of endings /t/, /d/, and /id/. Verbs are different from the other form classes in that their central form feature--the past tense--runs all the way through the class. Not all nouns form plurals, but all verbs can form a past tense in some way or other. Another possibility that all verbs have is the possibility of ending in ing: peeking, seeming, ending. This form occurs when the verb is used with the auxiliary be and also commonly when the verb is used as a modifier or in other function units.

The hard core of the adjective (3) class is the group of words that take the endings er and est to give the meanings "more" and "most."

The most conspicuous form feature of adverbs (4) is the ly ending added to an adjective base: bravely, happily, quickly, beautifully.

Roberts observes that there is a good deal of shifting around of the membership of the form classes. A word will turn up now as a noun and again as a verb. A word will be an adjective in one pattern and an adverb in another. But in all good sentences the form classes are always marked by a complicated system of signals.

From form words, the text moves to structure groups. One structure group is determiners which pattern in a special way with nouns. Such words as the, a, my, every, our regularly mark the beginning of a noun cluster. They serve as signals that nouns are coming. Other structure groups discussed are prepositions (P), auxiliaries (A), intensifiers (V--the symbol derived from the word very, which is one of the most common intensifiers), conjunctions

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956. (continued)
(C), sentence connectors (T-after words that pattern like therefore), subordinators (S), and a special group of structure words, question words (Q).

Nearly all the complicated structures that make up our English sentences can be seen as variations of a very few basic patterns. Certain common patterns stand out prominently.

One is simply a noun tied to a verb:

	1	←-----→	2
Birds			sing.
Charlie			sings.

Another is a noun tied to a verb with an adjective following:

	1	←-----→	2		3
Birds			are		happy.
Al			is		happy.

When we have a noun after the verb, we may have either of two patterns, depending on whether the verb is a linking verb or not. If it is a linking verb, the two nouns will refer to the same person or thing. The verbs that commonly link nouns in this way in American English are be and become:

	1 ^a	←-----→	2		1 ^a
Pigeons			are		birds.
Al			became	my	friend.

Other verbs signal that the two nouns refer to different people or different things. This gives another pattern:

	1 ^a	←-----→	2		1 ^b
Robins			like		worms.
Al			hates	my	friend.

When we have two nouns after the verb, we again get different patterns according to whether the second two nouns refer to the same person or thing or not. If they do, we get a pattern like this:

	1 ^a	←-----→	2		1 ^b		1 ^b
Robins			consider	worms			candy.
Al			called	Stan	a		hero.

If they refer to different persons or things, we get this basic pattern:

	1 ^a	←-----→	2		1 ^b		1 ^c
People			feed	pigeons			crumbs.
Al			gave	Stan	a		medal.

Another basic pattern involves the structure word there. This is followed by a verb--usually be--then a noun tied to the verb and then some other construction, like an adverb or a P-group:

there		2		D		1		4
There		is		a		man		here.
There		are		some		men		here.

All of these basic patterns can be expanded into much longer constructions.

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956. (continued)

The various positions occupied by the nouns in these basic patterns are called function units. In the basic patterns the noun that is tied to the verb is called the subject.

The noun after the linking verb in the pattern $1^a 2 1^a$ is called a linking-verb complement. In the pattern $1^a 2 1^b$ the second noun is an object. In $1^a 2 1^b 1^b$ the noun after after the verb is an object, and the last noun is an object complement. In $1^a 2 1^b 1^c$ the 1^b is an indirect object, and 1^c is an object.

Function units of a somewhat different sort are the modifiers: noun modifiers, verb modifiers, and sentence modifiers. The most common modifiers of nouns are of course the determiners. Verbs are most commonly modified by adverbs of three different types: go away, go quietly, and go often. Sentence modifiers are most likely to be word groups, with P-groups and S-groups as the most common.

Finally, we have to know what the pattern parts are. Think of an English sentence as a series of levels. On each level there are two parts, one part working against the other. A study of two-part levels indicates the way sentences build up. The top level is the whole sentence. The pattern parts on this level are the sentence modifier, if there is one, working against the rest of the sentence:

After he milked the cows / he took a little nap.
Diving into the pool / Alice caught the seal.

If there is no sentence modifier, the pattern consists of the subject as one part and the verb or verb cluster as the other. The subject is most often a noun, or noun cluster or pronoun, but it doesn't have to be:

Charlie / changed the tire.
A man who happened along / changed the tire.
What he does with it / is his own business.
Driving in heavy traffic / is very tiring.

The text continues with pattern parts of noun cluster, verb clusters, P-groups, S-groups. These different structures—noun clusters, verb clusters, P-groups, S-groups—occur in all sorts of function units. But wherever they occur, their pattern parts are always the same, always work together in the same way.

Almost as an afterthought, Roberts presents the phoneme. Actually, the entire chapter is glossed, and I doubt very seriously whether a student would understand how the phonemic principle is related to language analysis. The relation between intonation and punctuation is more clearly presented.

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and company, 1956. (continued)

Paul Roberts' Patterns of English for the most part is based on Charles C. Fries' The Structure of English, with only relatively minor and quite straight forward modification. However, Fries gives no attention to phonology. For this Roberts followed the work of George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith's An Outline of English Structure. If these two sources are compared as wholes, they will be seen to take very different positions on many basic points. The incompatibility is not directly evident in Roberts's book, however, since the phonology is from one and the syntax from the other and the two areas of study are not very tightly interrelated. This particular pattern, in numerous minor variations, has been so widely used that, for many English teachers, "new grammar" is identified with a system of this kind--basically Fries' syntax with Trager and Smith's phonology.

Roberts' later book, English Sentences (1962) follows much the same approach but adds to it a number of ideas which he found in Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures. The book is often said to have abandoned the "structural grammar" of its predecessor for the new "transformational grammar," but this is clearly not the case. Most of the old remains, obscured by a quite fortunate return to a more conservative terminology. To this has been added the conception of a transformation as a process converting one sentence to another. The treatment at this point shows a significant departure from that in Syntactic Structures. Chomsky--quite appropriately for his purpose--applies transformations not to sentences but to "strings" underlying sentences. For school use the less abstract treatment is certainly preferable. In a sense, English Sentences follows the same approach as does Patterns of English, only weaving in one more source. However, the material is much better integrated, the book seems more of a unity, and --probably as a consequence of this--it is a much more successful attempt.

Sledd, James. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959.

This text is an attempt at a workable transition from old to new grammar. With some modifications, the familiar subject-predicate definition of a sentence is retained, along with the classifications of sentences into simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex and into statements, questions, commands, and exclamations. The first classification takes into consideration distinctions between independent and dependent clauses and between clauses and phrases. Most of the familiar constructions, including three kinds of objects, are also distinguished with familiar traditional names being used. In content and in appearance, the book is more traditional than most of the other interim textbooks.

The first chapter outlines the English phonemic system, although the reader does not find the analysis of English vowels which was completed and made popular by Trager and Smith. Importance is placed on the English systems of pitch and stress which, according to the author, are most important in syntactic analysis. A brief and conventional description of the speech organs and of methods for the articulatory classification of vowels and consonants precedes the section on vowels and consonants themselves. The enumeration of twenty-four consonants follows most widely accepted theory, but the treatment of the vowels and diphthongs is a modification of Kenyon's analysis which appears in American Pronunciation (1951).

The second chapter, "Parts of Speech," includes the widest departure from traditional statements in the entire grammar. The traditional labels are kept in name only, for the definitions are modified quite extensively. Instead of the traditional eight parts of speech, it recognizes one set of classes distinguished by their suffixes and another set distinguished by their positions in sentences. Nouns, for example, are defined as words inflected like man, boy, box, or dog; another set of classes called nominals are defined as words, phrases, or clauses standing in sentence positions which nouns typically occupy. Paul Roberts calls these positions, which nouns occupy, function units. Fries does not make a morphological and syntactic distinction in his Class 1 words. He defines his Class 1 words both morphologically and syntactically but gives precedence to the syntactic criteria.

Chapters Three and Four lead on from words toward sentences. The third chapter is an analysis of certain nominal phrases. No direct and extended analysis of modification is undertaken in this chapter because as the author points out many linguistically oriented textbooks leave many modification problems unsolved.

Sledd, James. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959. (continued)

Chapter Four, on verbal phrases, is presented much the same way that Chapter Three was. It attempts no extended analysis of the complicated class of adverbials, and it keeps intact the traditional complements, including three kinds of objects. This chapter follows the progression of words through phrases and clauses to sentences.

Chapters Three and Four are the foundation for the discussion of subjects and predicates in Chapter Five. The definitions of subjects and predicates and still more the definition of the sentence in this chapter depend on previous definitions of the smaller units which these structures include. Chapter Five concludes with formulas which represent a number of the constructions presented in Chapters Three, Four and Five. The model for these formulas is taken from Fries' Structure of English.

The concluding chapter in the grammar proper is on the sentence. The traditional subject-predicate definition of the sentence is used by the author which reflects the attitude that linguists have accomplished more in phonology than in syntax. The author does not feel that all English sentences can be analyzed into their immediate constituents--by successive dichotomy until the individual morphemes, roughly the smallest meaningful units, have been reached.

Chapter Seven is a glossary of grammatical terms, which further provides a selective index to the first six chapters, sums up their important statements, and indicates the relation of those statements to the schoolroom tradition.

The final chapter in the book, "Applied Grammar: Some Notes on English Prose Style," rests on a definition of style as the manner of saying what is said. Style in language, according to the author, is then synonymous with linguistic choice and rejection; the study of style becomes basically comparative; and the necessary instruments of comparison are grammars and dictionaries. The author emphasizes the extrinsic value of the chapter merely in its usefulness to students and teachers of writing.

From a pedagogical point of view, Sledd's textbook seems more applicable than Paul Roberts' Sentence Patterns. The sequence of sounds to words to phrases to clauses to sentences would have more appeal to the traditionally oriented student and teacher alike.

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1956.

Initially, the author emphasizes the importance of language by explaining the relationship between language and culture. Language and culture are inextricably interwoven. Language cannot be taught in a vacuum anymore than it is learned in a vacuum. True understanding of the nature and function of language furnishes the best and surest avenue to an understanding of the culture and the way of life of the people who speak it. Languages are different because cultures are different, and understanding differences is the greatest task all people have to face in this unhappy, divided, and shrinking world.

The author, concerned with the lack of awareness on the part of forward-looking educators of the strides that have been made by linguistic science in the past decades, and the extent to which this progress could be applied to the core of the language arts program in elementary and secondary schools, proposes specific ways in which linguistics can help educators in their extremely important jobs.

What Smith proposes implies no less than a revolution in American education. First, he explains there is universal confusion shared by all literate peoples everywhere--the confusion between language and writing. According to the writer, about 98 per cent of all our species are in full control of the structure of their group's communication systems at about five and a half years of age; therefore all languages must be of about the same order of difficulty, simplicity or complexity.

However, these many speakers of different languages see the world and relationships in the world of experience in quite different ways. This leads away from the assumption that "thought" and "ideas" are universal and can be "put into words" by all languages in much the same way. Thought is largely the product of the language we speak. The linguist's interest in meaning in relation to language is different from the psychologist's. For the linguist, attention is focused on the language system to see how the "vehicle" is put together to carry the "thought." The thought, then, is the meaning of what is communicated between those speaking a common language and participating in a common culture.

With this exclusion of "meaning" in the usual sense of the word, Smith launches into an explanation of the linguist's job of analyzing and describing the contrasting components of the structure of language on ascending levels of complexity. Language, like all cultural systems, can be seen to be composed of isolates, sets, and patterns--or sounds, words, and constructions. The way the sounds

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1956. (contd) group into forms and words and the way these in turn, Pattern into constructions and sentences must be ascertained and stated through the use of differential meaning only.

When language has been described in terms of its own isolates, sets, and patterns, the inter-relationship between language and writing can place the teaching of reading on a far firmer basis than that which now is employed. The educator is chilled, says the author, by the mechanical and lifeless approach the linguist seems to bring to reading; however the linguist is appaled by the educator's lack of even the most basic facts about language in general or the English language in particular.

Smith, as all linguists do, views writing as a secondary system. Language is a systematization and symbolization of experience; writing is a symbolization, inconsistent and incomplete the author declares, of language. Writing is thus a symbolization of a symbolization, and by and large a reminding system to the native speaker of something someone has said or could say in the language. In alphabetic writing systems, sounds are represented by letters; letters do not "have sounds," as present reading textbooks state. According to Smith, a good reading readiness program can and should bring the isolates of the sound system into awareness in preparation for a systematic teaching of the relationship of sound to letter.

In part two of the book, the author analyzes English vowels to show how unaware traditionally educated people really are of the structure of our language. Smith explains that linguists classify the vowels of languages according to the use made of the tongue and lips in relation to the mouth cavity. By using various dialect examples, the author indicates the complexity of the structuring of English vowel nuclei. Thirty-six possible "vowels" in his over-all pattern is quite a long way from the traditional "five vowels--a,e,i,o,u, and sometimes y and w." The advantage of the teacher's knowing something about the structuring of the vowel system in the teaching of reading is immediately apparent. For one, confusion and frustration can be avoided if the teacher understands that "standard" pronunciation varies geographically and that just because Johnny pronounces "bad" as /behd/ when the teacher pronounces it /bæhd/ doesn't make Johnny wrong and the teacher right.

Continuing, Smith explains that not only in the areas of the vowels and consonants is our writing system woefully incomplete and inconsistent but also in the handling of the phenomena of stress and intonation. The author systematically presents a number of patterns of stresses

Smith, Henry Lee, Jr. Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1956. (contd.) In English and shows how this basic knowledge about the structure of English can be of infinite value in a students' later attempts at mastering a foreign language by describing some of the similarities and differences in the operation of stress between German and English.

In part three, the author turns from basis isolates and sets to a consideration of one of the basic patterns, the intonation pattern, which encloses, so to speak, the words and constructs and gives clues and signals as to the sentence. Using examples, he explains the inter-relationship of pitch, juncture, and stress. After discussing the fallacy inherent in the traditional definition of the sentence, Smith defines a sentence phonologically and syntactically.

By not using technical terminology, the author has been quite effective in his approach to "selling" applied linguistics.

Whitehall, Harold. Structural Essentials of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1951.

The proper approach to written English is first to understand what the medium is; then to concede its limitations and to use its strengths to the best possible effects.

The grammatical description of any language is made scientifically possible by isolating certain recurrent units of expression and examining their distribution in contexts. Since the word groups (traditional phrase and clause) have become our main structural units of expression, Whitehall starts his analysis at this point in a sentence-word-group-affix-combine forms-phoneme analysis.

The author defines a word group as a cluster of two or more words which functions either independently or in a longer sequence of statement as a grammatical unit. In spoken English these word groups are marked off by configurational features (suprasegmental phonemes). Word-groups may be headed or non-headed. In headed word-groups, the head can be freely substituted grammatically for the word groups of which they are constituents. There are noun-headed, verb-headed, modifier-headed and verbal-headed word groups. Non-headed word-groups include prepositional, subject-predicate, and conjunctive groups. This explanation of word groups builds to the principle of constituent analysis.

According to the author, rhythm lies at the very heart of English grammatical structure; thus he launches into a discussion of stress, tone, and interruption (juncture) stressing the relationship between the suprasegmental phonemes and constituent analysis and claiming that rhythm is the first essential of the structural essentials of English.

The second structural essential presented in Chapter Three is the sentence. English sentences are sentences because they possess one or other of the final tone-pause patterns characteristic of the language. The significant tone levels of English are four: highest, high, normal, and low. The commonest English tone pattern involves a sharp fall from one of the high tones used in individual declarative utterances or on the last stressed word of any word-group used as a sentence of a declarative nature. The second common English final tone pattern involves rising higher tone commencing on the last stressed syllable of a sentence (single interrogatives and interrogative word-groups). The third common tone pattern occurs at internal grammatical juncture, usually after a fall from high tone at the syllable division of a compound or during the vowel of a single syllable word.

Whitehall, Harold. Structural Essentials of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1951. (continued)

Chapter Three continues with a discussion of the principal types of sentences in English. The author uses Sentence Situation I to symbolize the traditionally popular subject-predicate sentence which, following the author's analysis, would be the subject-predicate word-group accompanied by the declarative high-low tone-pause pattern. The presence of a complement characterizes Sentence Situation II, and a sentence with two complements represents Sentence Situation III.

Chapter Four presents the principle of modification and is centered around the statement that essential elements occupy fixed positions while less essential elements tend to be movable. The less essential are modifiers. Single word modifiers normally precede and word-group modifiers normally follow the words they modify. Movable modifiers include single words, headed groups, and non-headed groups.

Chapter Five is the author's attempt to incorporate the traditional preposition and conjunction into his system. In order to accomplish this, the author first presents a full word-empty word dichotomy by explaining that empty words provide a grammatical framework within which the meanings of the full words operate. Supposedly, English contains fifteen classes of empty words; however only two are presented in the chapter: connecting words used in prepositional word-groups, and connecting words used with subject-predicate word-groups. Prepositions are defined as empty words used to hook nouns, pronouns, and word-groups onto preceding words, word-groups, and sentences. Conjunctions are connective empty words used to link words or word-groups in non-case relationships.

The system of the English verb is explained next in Chapter Six. The verb position in English (fixed word-order position 2) can be filled not only by the simple verb but also by a headed word-group (verb group). The author differentiates the functions of the verb head itself and the empty words used in verb word-groups. The function of the verb head is to indicate time as past or non-past (whatever that is). The main function of the empty words is to limit the functions of the verb according to the attitudes and feelings of speakers towards the happenings they may be reporting. There follows a discussion of the several interlocking grammatical relationships of the verb: tense, mood, aspect, voice, modals, and timers.

Chapter Seven, "Word Forms I," presents the grammar of word forms. One facet has to do with the varying shapes of words, the other with their behavior. The one involves their changes of form, the other the ways in which they

Whitehall, Harold. Structural Essentials of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1951. (continued)
 cross-reference each other within the web of interrelations forming a context. In tables the author presents the three, four, five and eight-part verb and certain noun plurals not in the regular pattern of formation. The author suggests that the practical thing is to memorize and use these forms in the knowledge that they are all acceptable in written English, all fashionable, always appropriate. (Who is the arbiter, now?)

Finally, in Chapter Eight, the author considers the traditional pronoun in the guise of substitution. However, the author cautions that substitution covers a much broader territory in contemporary English (Whatever that is).

Chapter Nine presents selection--the grammatical relations of number, gender, person, and case. Of these four, only the first two are really integral to English structure. After discussing person and case, the author presents his selective principles 1-5 as rule-of-thumb principles and then launches into a number of exceptions to his five selective principles which he calls confusion 1-10. These confusions, the author explains, have had lamentable effect on the writing and speech of superficially educated persons (and, I might add, superficially educated readers as myself).

Chapter Ten merely outlines our conventional system of punctuation, according to function: to link sentences and parts of sentences, to enclose parts of sentences, and to indicate omissions. What has been attempted is to present punctuation proper as a system of symbols each of which contrasts with all others in function.

Chapters Eleven and Twelve are quite sketchy. Chapter Eleven presents a phonemic spelling system--a system of spelling which accurately reflects all the sound signals used in English to differentiate one meaning from another. Chapter Twelve hastily presents some of the morphological processes of English.

The Appendix contains some brief material in the general area of historical linguistics.

The author states in the forward that this book has very simple purposes: to describe the general structural design of English and to focus against it those special difficulties commonly encountered when we are learning to write a language. In my estimation the structure of English is presented neither simply nor logically.

ANALYSIS-SECTION III

Brewton, John E., et al. Using Good English. Dallas: Laidlaw Brothers, 1965.

Unit eight of this textbook emphasizes from the outset that the study of language is a real science which involves observation, tests, and conclusions just as other sciences do.

The objective of this unit, "Development of Modern English," is to establish in students an awareness of the nature of their language and to help them see how it has come to be their language. Four major aspects of language are presented: (1) change in language; (2) history and growth of English; (3) cultural dialects; and (4) sentence patterns.

A discussion of the process of language change in this unit includes changes in the sounds, symbols, and system of English. The point is stressed that pronunciations change first, and then the spellings change; that many sound changes are ordered changes; and that changes are occurring in English at the present time.

By comparing a passage in Old English with the literal translation in Modern English, the student of this text observes that word forms differ markedly between Old English and Modern English. Attention is directed to contrastive inflections in Old English and Modern English. Students conclude that word order had replaced inflection as the most important element of English.

Emphasis is placed upon the fact that symbol changes are the greatest of all language changes and that there are three general ways in which these symbols change--dropping, adding, and changing meaning.

This unit also describes the history of English and speculates on its future. The student sees how English came to be the language of Britain and analyzes its chances of ever becoming a world language.

The cultural aspects of dialect are also treated in this unit. Students learn there is not a great diversity among cultural dialects in the United States. The linguistic doctrine of appropriateness, so important to an understanding of language and usage, is presented.

Finally, students are presented with seven basic sentence patterns. They learn to form and expand these patterns using a combination of transformational and traditional terminology. Students also learn about form class and structure words and how they operate in English sentences.

This linguistic unit is quite sound. The only drawback is that the text lacks expansion of linguistic principles beyond this one unit, for the nomenclature and the fundamental outline of grammar remain traditional. The authors' claim that "some of the principles of the new approaches to grammar have been recognized whenever possible," is a moot point.

Christ, Henry I. Modern English in Action. Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1965.

This secondary textbook does make a conscientious effort to utilize recent research in linguistics. It utilizes new terminology and shows how teachers may begin working new definitions, new explanations, and new approaches into a traditional format.

Six basic sentence patterns are presented in Chapter 32 with the explanation that each item in each of these patterns can be expanded by the use of modifiers, and each item can be compounded. The text explains that the list of patterns given in this book is simplified from a list of "kernels" required by a consistently transformational approach. The patterns are as follows:

Pattern 1.	SV
Pattern 2.	SVO
Pattern 3.	SVIO
Pattern 4.	SVN
Pattern 5.	SVA
Pattern 6.	SVOC

Derivative patterns are presented as inverted sentences and passive transformations. Four methods of expanding sentences are exhibited as: (1) Add simple modifiers to form noun and verb clusters; (2) Link patterns together to form compound sentences; (4) Add subordinate clauses; and (4) Add verbals.

Structure clues, presented in conjunction with a chapter on the structure of the simple sentence, are (1) position in the sentence, (2) endings, and (3) signal words. These structure clues are presented as auxiliary aids to the identification of the traditional parts of speech.

A teacher's manual to accompany the textbook also presents a discussion of new grammar which includes some practical lesson plans for incorporating new grammar into a traditional framework. Segments of the analysis employed by structural linguists are correlated with contrastive traditional analysis where it is possible to do so throughout the grammar chapters.

Conlin, David A., and Herman, George R. Modern Grammar and Composition. New York: American Book Company, 1965.

This textbook recognizes that speech and writing are two different forms of communication; therefore each form uses a different set of symbols. It recognizes that speech is reinforced by intonation, by voice qualifiers, by gestures, and even by repetition. It recognizes that written language consists of graphic symbols that appear on a page with almost no reinforcement. It recognizes that speech is learned early and the learning is highly motivated in the security of the home. It recognizes that written English is learned in the classroom in an entirely different kind of environment. This implies then that written English has to be more effective in order to communicate clearly and adequately.

The teaching process in this text is inductive rather than deductive. Learning then becomes a process of observation and discovery instead of a study of definitions and rules along with the endless application of these rules and the detailed analysis of their various exceptions which one so often finds in the familiar traditional approach to grammar. The inductive approach is consistent with linguistic science. Generalization is made when possible, but it comes only after observation of the language forms. For example, in the basic study of the sentence, the student observes the various physical characteristics of the English sentence: phonology, morphology, and syntax. Thus, the subjective definition of a sentence as found in a traditional grammar is replaced by the application of objective criteria.

As a corollary to the inductive approach, the textbook emphasizes the objective signals of language as clues to meaning. In the study of the four main form classes--nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs--students observe the characteristics of form that serve as signals to the identification of these words in communication. Students note the way these words are used in sentences, observing their functions in determining meaning. Students note the variety of positions in which these words are used, observing that syntax in English is determined largely by this position.

The text also introduces material that relates the study of intonation to the problems of sentence structure and punctuation. The study of phonemics is applied in detail to the reduction of spelling difficulties.

I believe this textbook has accomplished more than most in adapting materials currently available in linguistic research for teachers and students whose background and training are largely traditional.

Mellie, John, and Yates, Paulene M. The New Building Better
English. 4th ed. revised. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

Although this secondary English textbook for the eleventh grade is basically traditional in its approach to grammar, it does contain one chapter (29) which is linguistically oriented: "Linguistic Grammar: Producing Sentences."

NP	VP	AP	AVP
The dogs	are becoming	very restless	quite suddenly

NP marking words are called determiners. In the sentence above, the determiner "The" and the affix "-s" identify the noun "dogs."

AP and AVP marking words are called qualifiers or intensifiers. In the example sentence, the qualifier "very" and the affix "-less" identify the adjective "restless"; the qualifier "quite" and the affix "-ly" identify the adverb "suddenly."

A chart follows which lists various marking words and affixes for the NP, VP, AP, and AVP signaling systems. The affixes are differentiated as inflectional or derivational.

Next, the noun phrase (NP) is described as being composed of a determiner string, an affix, and a noun, with all the determiners being optional. The NP description stated as a formula would be:

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/-----determiner string-----/
(art.) + (dem.) + (poss.) + (ord.) + (card.) + (comp.)
                                     + (affix) + noun

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In the formula, + means plus; () means optional or possible; {} means one or the other.

The VP is made up of a marking system and a verb. Information about the order and choice of auxiliaries produces this formula:

V-marking system ----> (modal) + (have) + (be) + verb

Next, the word-affix transformation is presented as:

$s + \text{eat} \xrightarrow{\text{=====}} \text{eat} + s, \text{ or } \text{eats}$

Mellie, John, and Yates, Paulene M. The New Building Better English. 4th ed. revised. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.
(continued)

This reversal process is a rule of transformation.
The transformation (T) rule can be written as:

affix + word -----> word + affix

Section two presents the principle of transformation using the following basic sentence patterns:

1. N ₁	Birds fly
2. N ₁ V-t N ₂	Bill lit the fire
3. N ₁ V-l N ₁	Roger is chairman
4. N V-l A ₁	Karen is beautiful
5. N V AV	She is there
6. N ₁ V-t N ₂ N ₃	He gave me the book
7. N ₁ V-t N ₂ N ₂	We made him director
8. N ₁ V-t N ₂ A ₂	She thought him handsome

A N₁ V-t N₂ sentence is described as:

NP
Those(dem.) + two(card.) + pretty(A) + s + bird =====>
VP bird + s
Ø + have + en + be + ing + build =====>
have + Ø + be + en + build + ing
NP
an(art.) + unusual(A) + Ø + nest =====>
nest + Ø

Result: Those two pretty birds have been building an unusual nest.

The passive transformation is presented as:

The + boy + will + Ø + hit + the + ball
The + ball + will + Ø + be + en + hit + by + the + boy
The ball will be hit by the boy

The text says simply to observe these facts about the passive transformation: (1) The subject of the input sentence becomes the object of the preposition "by," which is added after the verb; (2) The "be" form and "-en" affix are added to the sentence before the verb; (3) The form of "be" that appears in the result sentence is determined by the subject or by the aux that immediately precedes it; and (4) The "-en" affix combines with the main verb, which follows it, and produces a tense form that replaces the form of the verb in the input sentence.

The remainder of the chapter presents transformations which reduce one of the input sentences to a phrase, clause, or word with no background on matrix or constituent sentences.

Warriner, John E., et al. English Grammar and Composition. revised ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1965.

The sales brochure for this textbook declares that this text is the most thorough and accurate presentation of traditional grammar available in a secondary school program--rules, and explanations revised for clarity and consistency in light of today's language scholarship. Also, according to the brochure, the texts presents responsible use of linguistic concepts--important new chapters on the development of English.

The eleventh grade text of this series contains one chapter (35) on American dialects. The chapter obviously is added to this revised edition.

Chapter thirty-five initially traces the geographical development of American English dialects with a hint of economic and cultural relationships. The following is an example of one of the learning skills activities related to this section: "To test your knowledge of what you have just read, write short answers to the following questions: (1) List at least two things that lead to the growth of differences between dialects; and (2) List the five main dialect regions of American English and write one or two short sentences about the source and extent of each."

The next section on characteristics of American English presents a chart of dialect differences in vocabulary taken from the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada. The usual "brook, creek, branch, run; carry, pack, tote; nightcrawler, angleworm, fishworm" analogies are used to exemplify vocabulary dialect differences throughout the United States. The pronunciation differences in dialect are treated traditionally according to a dictionary pronunciation guide. Grammar variations in dialect are treated as characteristic phrases and expressions of the five dialect regions.

The inadequacy of the format of this chapter becomes apparent in the following learning skills activity: "Make a brief dialect survey of your classmates or of members of your community. If you find differences between their speech and the speech of your area, try to explain why." (The student is supposed to do this without prior knowledge of phonetics, informants, etc.?)

A section on loan words treats American, Indian, French, Spanish, German, and a few other languages. Americanisms are discussed in terms of the principle of generalization, specialization, and derivational suffixes.

I doubt the "responsible use of linguistic concepts" in this chapter.

CONCLUSION

This truncated bibliography is directed generally to anyone directly or indirectly involved with the planning of an English curriculum on the secondary school level in Kansas; it is directed specifically to secondary school administrators, curriculum coordinators, and English teachers.

An analysis of the available materials for teaching the new grammar indicate: (1) that commercially published English textbooks with linguistically oriented materials are readily available on the market today; (2) that teachers are using these materials from Florida to Oregon with relatively high degrees of success; and (3) that the inductive approach to teaching English, which correlates with the subject matter of linguistics, seems to give the student a much better basis for developing language skills than the traditional method.

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AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF AVAILABLE MATERIALS FOR
TEACHING THE NEW GRAMMAR IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by

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B.S., Kansas State University, 1950

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Speech

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The purpose of this report was to compile an annotated bibliography of resource materials for teaching the new grammar in secondary schools.

Recently, grammar as traditionally taught in secondary schools has been under attack. Unfortunately, many curriculum planners and administrators, the general public and not a few teachers are only partially aware of the extent to which the traditional approach to language has been challenged and modified in the past few decades.

The results of this revolution have produced three additional varieties of English grammar: historical, structural, and transformational-generative. What is the English teacher to do faced with such wealth, or diversity, or turmoil?

By compiling a bibliography of available resources for the new grammar, the writer feels that such a report could help the teacher or curriculum planner decide how much of the new grammar students can learn, what could be the best sequence to present this new material, and what parts of it will aid most in achieving his primary goal: the development of better communication skills in his students.

The bibliography itself is divided into three sections. Section one contains post-1955 annotated articles, essays, and discussions of the new grammar. Section two contains annotations of books of theory and application of the new grammar. And finally, section three of the bibliography contains commercially published English textbooks for the secondary school which treat new grammar in whole or in part.

An analysis of this bibliographical material for teaching new grammar indicates: (1) That commercially published English textbooks with linguistically oriented materials are readily available on the market today; (2) That teachers from Florida to Oregon are using these materials with

relative degrees of success; and (3) That the inductive approach to teaching English which correlates with the subject matter of linguistics, seems to give secondary students a much better basis for developing language skills than the traditional method.